

THE CLEARING HOUSE

*A journal for progressive junior and
senior high-school people*

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Editorial

The general theme of this issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE is "Community Relationships." The editorial committee has attempted to secure points of view from all sections of the country, each on a different phase of this tremendously important link in the chain of democracy. These are trying days when the fundamental principles of our government seem more than ever to be on trial. "No chain is stronger than its weakest link" is a principle cementing the foundation stones of democracy. A nation cannot be stronger than the summation of the communities composing its government. The nation cannot prosper when the two great groups, capital and labor, are at odds, resulting in injury also to the third group, or middle class.

Different authors in this issue suggest some of these conflicting agencies, indicate the causes of these conflicts, and point out possible remedies for accomplishing a more united and helpful educational and civic relationship necessary to perpetuate a functioning democracy.

Formerly the goal of education was too often a god of gold—money. Education for leisure and for citizenship was seldom emphasized. The result is the chaos of today, accentuated, of course, by the results of the World War and other causes. The cry of a "country safe for democracy" has not materialized into a "democracy safe for the country"—nor can it when, as one author in this issue shows, greed supersedes the good in men. When multitudes starve while mil-

lionaires feast, the hope of democracy wanes. Leaders in education and in business should read the handwriting reflected from the ghastly but convincing uprisings in neighboring states throughout the world. Politics are fraught with graft, business with racketeers and an appeal to emotions which damn our youths, and education with mercenaries who misappropriate educational terminology, confusing the profession—and all this for the sake of the almighty dollar. Civic responsibilities are shunned and the security of our institutions of government is threatened. Only a rebirth of a civic and social sensitiveness to individual and group responsibilities can save the day. These ties of community life, the interrelations of community activities—civic, social, and financial—must be strengthened.

This is no time to find fault; destructive criticism is seldom helpful and then only by implication. In these trying times there is little place for the educational iconoclast. If we would avoid needless conflicts and endless confusion we must readjust our educational philosophies and practices in the light of a changing civilization, but we should apply evolutionary rather than revolutionary procedures. Our social heritage of these hundreds of years—yea, thousands of years—forms a background of worth-while knowledge and of valuable experiences obtained, perhaps often, through the trial and error method; but, nevertheless, this cumulative knowledge and these worth-while experiences form the groundwork of our democ-

racy. We should not too hastily destroy this foundation until we have constructed a new foundation which gives assurance that it will support the ever changing civilization for which our schools are preparing the youths of our Nation. Too often some ambitious reformer seeks to construct his ladder of ambition from the havoc which he has wreaked through his relentless attacks on "traditional" practices. Our forefathers wisely provided that the fundamental law of the land may not easily be changed. They realized the danger of radicalism in times of public animation and dissent. Decisions concluded in the heat of argument lack the wisdom of conservatism. Grant that our civilization has changed more rapidly than have the educational philosophies which may be required to meet this changing civilization,

nevertheless, there is danger in making revolutionary changes in fundamental and traditional practices. What we need most is for the extremists and conservatives of all groups to gather around a common table for constructive suggestions and criticisms. By similar means we may expand the scope and interrelated activities of community life; by such means profitable leisure time may supersede apathy and indifference; by such community relationships the community life may be quickened and extended to include a brotherhood of creeds, races, interests, and activities; and by such means we may evolve new philosophies, new curricula, and new procedures that will ensure a sustained democracy for ourselves and our children.

C. F. A.

Guidance—A Science or a Philosophy?

Paul L. Boynton

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Paul L. Boynton, professor of educational psychology, Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, is an author and an authority in the field of educational psychology. In this article he sets forth briefly some fundamental philosophies pertinent to thinkers and teachers engaged in the work of education. He summarizes his suggestions and conclusions by well-chosen real situations. The case selected to illustrate the effects of health on school conduct is so interesting and conclusive it should stimulate teachers and personnel workers to a greater interest in the health of pupils as a cause for conduct.*

C. F. A.

THE QUESTION in the title of this article raises two further questions. One of these asks for a definition of science and the other for a definition of philosophy. It is not the province of a brief discussion of this type to enter upon the tedium of presenting all the characteristics of these two branches of learned procedure, or even the full relationship which exists between them. Therefore, if the following positions appear abrupt and arbitrary it is only because of the writer's desire to present certain assumptions or basic hypotheses upon which he will proceed and at the same time avoid endless subjectivisms. Accordingly, we may take philosophy to be a systematic method of thinking about and subjectively evaluating facts and experiences. Science, in turn, we would define as an organized body of objective and experimentally derived facts. An applied science is one which seeks to make a definite or formal application of these objective, experimentally derived facts to some phase of life or human experience. If we apply these definitions or concepts to the matter in hand we see that the crux of our whole problem centers around the question of whether guidance shall rest on objective procedures or subjective analyses.

Guidance, of course, is nothing new. It has

probably existed since the beginning of mankind, and, in fact, we see it, occasionally, even among lower animal orders. Surely in this length of time guidance should have perfected a method of procedure. And, in truth, it has. It is a method which customarily has been based on individual domination or suggestibility, a method in which the stronger—either physically, intellectually, socially, or economically—has dominated the weaker individual, and mapped a course of action for the weaker, frequently in terms of the former's abilities, rationalizations, skills, and prejudices more than in terms of the latter's abilities, capacities, and interests. Thus, we have the father who never could go to law school himself who directs his son into the law, not because he has found that the son is peculiarly adapted to it, but rather as a fulfillment of his own ambitions. An exaggerated case in point was that of a young Jewish student who, in his early college work, came to the writer for guidance. He was failing in all of his work. He was asked what subjects he was interested in. He replied, "Not a d— one." Further questioning developed the fact that there were four sons in the family and that the mother wanted to have a doctor, a lawyer, a teacher, and a rabbi in the family. Though this youngster despised medicine, he was the one who was selected by the mother for the realization of her dreams for a doctor in the family. His maladaptation was easily explained, of course. Withal, though, this mother's reaction was not very dissimilar, from the standpoint of technical guidance, from that of a certain other individual who dispensed his counseling much more widely, as a major avocational interest. He was greatly interested in his own vocational pursuits, and accordingly advised almost every boy who came to him to plan to follow this same vocation though

it demanded specialized interests, unusually high intelligence, and a long, tedious course of training. Such a procedure, certainly in no way scientific, probably could have been duplicated as easily in ancient Egypt as in many guidance conferences of the present time.

If science has done any one thing for the guidance movement it is to direct attention to the need for definite methods of procedure, the first of which is that of careful diagnosis. The guidance "expert" who comes to a group and conducts his counseling at the rate of one person per ten minutes, or even one person per hour or hour and a half, cannot have mastered the fundamental principle in scientific guidance, which might be stated as: no prognosis until careful diagnosis. Furthermore, the human individual is not one who can be diagnosed with more than chance accuracy in a short interval of time. Up to this point we have done little more than restate our problem. It might read as follows: Shall guidance diagnoses be based on the very best objective measurements which modern scientific procedures can afford, or shall it go on, much like it has for centuries, resting its prognoses solely on individual opinion and subjective mensuration?

There are two limitations of present-day objective measurements with which all should be thoroughly familiar. The first of these is that the scope of these measuring instruments is so limited that many highly important fields of human abilities and interests cannot be investigated. Thus, there is no instrument, of any consequence at least, which is even intended to measure an individual's *total* personality. Such tools as are now available are designed to get at only a part or phase of this whole. Again, there is no single instrument which shows an individual's ability to solve abstract, scholastic types of problems and at the same time concrete, motor-manipulatory types of problems. The danger in the use of present tests and measuring devices is that any one employing them may be in a position similar to

that of one of the blind men who described the elephant; he may be confusing a relatively small part for the whole.

The second of these limitations of objective measurements is the validity of the available instruments. No impartial judge could claim for modern objective tests in the various euthenic fields that they are not open to attack. To be sure, mistakes at times result from their use. Those who would advocate the complete substitution of individual opinions for these objective measurements simply because of occasional errors which the latter have made, however, frequently are in the position of a physician known to the writer. This physician accosted another acquaintance, a young engineer who was in charge of laying the first street pavement in his home town. The doctor began pointing out various mistakes, as he considered them, in the way the paving was being laid. The young engineer stood it as long as he could and then told his critic to stop, saying, "If I make a mistake, I do it out in the open where all of you can see it. If you make a mistake, they take it to the cemetery and bury it." The very nature of most objective measuring devices is such that when a mistake is made through their use the record of the mistake is frequently quite indisputable. With the more subjective approaches, however, records either do not exist or are more intangible, and thus when mistakes occur they cannot be checked with the same assurance. To take the position, though, that since objective measurements do result in grossly inaccurate diagnoses in a few instances they should be discarded in favor of the most primitive of techniques is like a commanding general saying that, since some of his machine guns occasionally jam, all machine guns should be discarded and the enemy attacked with fists and clubs.

To present the evidence in favor of the use of scientific instruments in guidance would require volumes. Even to present all the various types of uses would require more space than can be used here. Accordingly,

only two examples, from widely different fields, will be presented. In each of these examples, though, we see where the most careful of subjective approaches had failed and where the use of more scientific procedures proved their value in actual practice. The first of these illustrations has already been cited by the writer.¹ In this instance the boy was failing his schoolwork so completely (fifth grade) that he was a distinct school problem. He was given a psychological examination with the result that he scored so high the school authorities thought it to be preposterous. As in practically all cases of this type it had been assumed that he did not have the ability to carry the normal school load for children of his age. Nevertheless, another test was given, this time more as a check on the first test than as a check on the boy. The second examination tended to confirm the first. Accordingly, the principal took the boy out of the fifth grade, where he was a rather miserable failure, and put him in the seventh grade, where within the period of a very few weeks he became one of the outstanding scholars in the room. It is highly doubtful whether comparable educational guidance ever would have been accomplished through the continued use of subjective, philosophical procedures.

The second illustration chosen is that of a junior-high-school boy. He had never learned to control his fecal excretions. He was failing his work in school. His personality reactions were abnormal, being rather inert, or hyperaffectionate or even sadistic at times. He had been in some of the "best" schools in the country. No one had been able to render any assistance. Routinized physical examinations had been given by "specialists" and the boy had been pronounced normal. What was the trouble? Was he deficient; was he mentally abnormal, either psychopathic or psychoneurotic; or was he "just no 'count'"? A series of psychological examina-

tions dispelled the first possibility; he was considerably above the average in intelligence. Further psychological examinations negated the second question also. He was not unstable or mentally abnormal. Here, then, certain objective measures had so cleared the horizon from two points of view that further work along these lines appeared unnecessary. The next step was to get in touch with a highly competent medical clinician and ask him to run some careful objective tests to check for possible food idiosyncrasies. This was done and the specific idiosyncrasies were found and isolated. The boy went on a rather rigidly controlled diet at once; the old intestinal abnormality disappeared immediately. Along with this came some very striking additional changes. Within three weeks the boy's personality reactions had changed so completely both in the home and out of it that the mother took occasion to telephone just to express her gratification. The teachers, in turn, asked what had happened to the youngster, and as a corollary of this all his schoolwork was passed at the time of the next report. The illustration would seem to convey its own message without further elaboration.

We must recognize, though, that if the philosopher has been hypercritical of a procedure in which he has not been trained and, consequently, one which he is not qualified to analyze critically, the scientist has been comparably shortsighted in his attacks on all subjective activities in guidance. He has failed to realize that he himself is transformed from scientist to philosopher as soon as he begins to interpret and generalize from his facts. Still further, it would appear that he has gone so far at times as to believe that his methods are sufficient unto themselves, a thing which is not true and probably never will be true as long as we remain human beings in present form. Some capacities and forms of behavior do not, probably cannot, yield themselves logically to objective measurement. In such instances the scientist must enter the cloister of the philosopher and

¹ Paul L. Boynton, *Intelligence, Its Manifestations and Measurement* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1933).

work with subjectively derived data. If he fails to do this he is failing to obtain as complete a picture of relevant facts as it is possible for him to do, a thing of which no scientist should wish to be accused.

If we return now to our original question as to whether guidance is a science or a philosophy, we are prone to believe that in guidance we have a medium which is ideally adapted to the complete integration of the best in both approaches. Probably the first step in any general counseling activity should be the careful, judicious administration of all pertinent objective measuring instruments. Not to do this is much like putting on a pair of well-shined shoes of which the soles are completely worn out; the shoes may *look* well to others but to the person having to wear them they may cause a tre-

mendous amount of misery. The second step in the guidance program is to supplement these objective facts with all necessary general or subjectively derived information which it is possible to gain about the case in hand. A definite, formal attempt should be made to obtain supplementary subjective appraisals which specifically concern the problem under consideration. Finally, conclusions should be drawn not from one type of facts to the exclusion of other types, but rather from the entire body of information. Thus, science and philosophy should complement each other in guidance. In fact, if they do not we are disposed to believe that the individual who uses either to the exclusion of the other is seeing only one arc in the guidance program instead of the whole circle of related events.

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Interrelationship of Community-Service Groups

Jay B. Nash

EDITOR'S NOTE: Jay B. Nash is professor of education at New York University and is an author of national reputation. His conception of the relationships of community-service groups should be stimulating to every reader of THE CLEARING HOUSE. In this article he clearly sets forth some of the conflicts and needless overlappings of community activities and responsibilities but fortunately also suggests how these handicaps to a maximum efficiency of community activities may be overcome by the coöperative efforts of those interested in the success and advancement of the local community.

C. F. A.

STEEP GRADES show up weaknesses in your automobile engine that were never suspected while driving on a smooth highway. This same thing holds for our social machinery. We get the knocks on the grades. In times of prosperity when tax rates can be boosted and supplementary incomes are large, weaknesses in the social machinery are noticed only by a few serious students of community planning.

Plenty of weaknesses have been shown up during the past four years. Most of them, however, have not been caused by the depression. They have been here for several decades and have been getting steadily worse year by year. Almost a decade ago one of our best known authorities on municipal government commented as follows:¹

Where there are many local authorities there is bound to be some unnecessary duplication of work, as well as neglect of some functions. Thus in one city there are two sets of playgrounds, one provided by the school board and another by the park board, yet there is no system of playgrounds because of failure of two boards to work together. There is another case where there are two sets of municipal baths, with two separate supervising authorities, yet there is no system of public baths. Such overlappings frequently lead to bitter political

controversies between the separate authorities, and frequently result in lawsuits between them, all in the name of the public and at the public expense. On the other hand, new functions sometimes fall between two stools, since no one of the existing authorities cares to spend money on them.

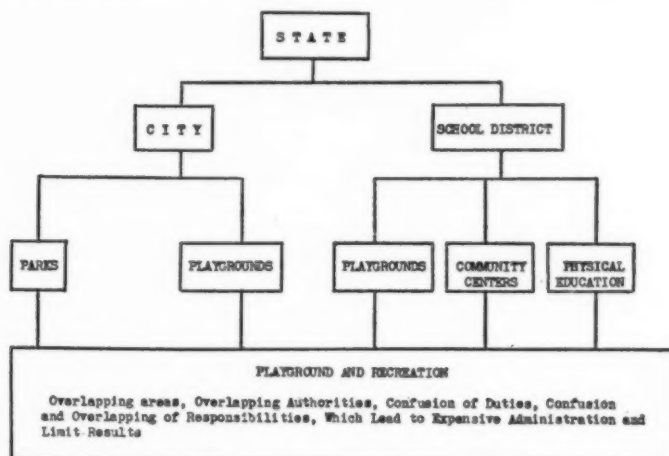
Thus it is that we have in most of our large cities a situation which, speaking mildly, is confusion—being brutally frank, it is chaos. The figure on page 522 illustrates only the major elements in this situation of confusion. Added to this, in many cities, are several additional branches of city government such as the crime-prevention bureaus, authorities controlling play streets, beaches, swimming pools, and recreational activities on docks and wharves. On the school side, in addition to the three activities mentioned, extension divisions are being carried on by public-school athletic leagues through night-school classes, and added to all of these we have literally hundreds of private and semi-private institutions dabbling in the field of the carry-over phases of public education. New York City alone has approximately three hundred of these institutions, while a number of the other large cities in the country are even less efficiently organized and administered.

From the standpoint of the application of education to living procedures, we must say that, to a large extent, the communities have failed. It should be sufficient evidence that thousands of people who have been through our public schools have been under the influence of these community organizations and yet have not been influenced to any great degree by them. Another evidence of the failure of community organizations is shown in the rapid and alarming rise in all phases of commercial recreation. We face a situation in which the community has paid

¹ William Anderson, *American City Government* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1925), pp. 82-83.

and paid dearly to develop life interests in children and adults. They have likewise paid and paid dearly to provide facilities for the expression of these interests. Yet in spite of all of these the community at large has almost completely handed itself over into the

ing. By this I definitely mean the pupil-leader relationship. This responsibility holds in the schoolroom, the clubroom, the church, the playground, or the settlement. This teaching need not necessarily be lecture, but it means exposing children to situations



all-embracing arms of financially motivated commercial recreation. The community organization recreational projects have quite literally hung alone partly because of the lack of any master plan and partly because of any community knowledge of opportunities, but largely because of rules, regulations, and red tape.

It is almost as difficult for people to get into the school buildings for which they have paid to carry on activities according to their desires as it is to break out of prison. This will be vigorously denied by many local officials but you may demonstrate the proof of it by trying to get a clubroom or a gymnasium in the school for a Boy Scout troop or a basketball game.

THE DUAL RESPONSIBILITY OF EDUCATION

Education, which I by no means limit to the school, has a dual responsibility in connection with enriching the opportunities of people.

First, there is the responsibility of teach-

whereby they may improve their skills to the point where they take joy in participation. This joy in participation may be in music, crafts, physical education, science, or what-not.

The second responsibility is fully as great; namely, to offer to all people opportunities to practice, or, in other words, to do the things in which they have acquired skills; otherwise, the teaching is of little value. There is little value in teaching children tennis unless there are community facilities so that they may play. There is very little use in teaching the children the art of debate and discussion unless they have an opportunity to meet and discuss in clubs. There is very little use in teaching children government unless they have an opportunity to take part in governmental affairs. This carries the responsibility of education right on through the adult years. Not only should children be given the opportunity to express themselves, but so must adults. This must be an expression of people's wants. A very prominent of-

ficial in the field of school extension activities recently said: "You cannot conceive of how obstinate the people are in the various communities in this city. They won't go into the activities we organize. They want to tell us what to do." This certainly is a real hope. As soon as the community can become sufficiently organized they will tell these officials in no uncertain terms what they want to do. If the center organizes ping pong and they want to debate—they will debate.

We have organized this first responsibility of teachers almost to the nth degree. We have filled our classrooms and we have lectured—lectured—and lectured again. We have given so many lectures that the average individual has had enough for a lifetime. We have calmly assumed that the individual, being told what he ought to do, would forthwith go out into the community and find his opportunities. He has not.

THERE ARE HANDICAPS

Much of the confusion in this situation is inherent in our governmental machinery. We are fully aware that our cities are creatures of the State. Home rule in most of them is somewhat of a farce. We have not quite realized that our school boards, while independent units, are also creatures of the State. This throws two more or less independent bodies, independent corporations, both responsible to the State, into overlapping administrative situations in the same community. It has been well established by the court that power once delegated by the State may not be re-delegated. Thus, though either the city or the school board may entrust its properties to mere agents, they may not delegate their powers over such property. This goes so far as to indicate that one State arm may not delegate its power to another State arm. Thus we encounter the difficulty of having any central administrative board within a community administer the educational laboratory phases or what we have more or less termed as the recreational phases of education.

Even if these two State arms could be united the private and semiprivate organizations would still be left out or, at best, be left on the fringe.

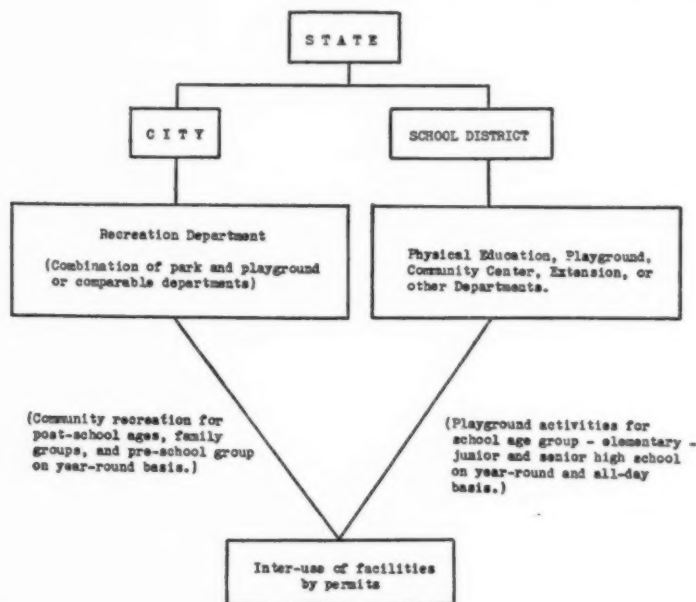
POSSIBLE WAYS OUT

The solution, so far as it relates to co-ordinating government arms where neither arm can delegate responsibility to the other, would possibly be in agreeing upon a division of responsibility. Some such responsibility as the following might be agreed upon.

<i>Age of Participants</i>	<i>Post-School Group</i>
UP	Organized by city park, playground, or combination of park and playground, or comparable department.
24	Permits from school for use of school facilities in the evening.
23	(Use municipal parks, municipal playgrounds, county, State, and National parks, and land acquired on lease or loan.)
22	
21	
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19	
<i>School Group</i>	
18	Organized by the school on year-round basis. Under direction of certified instructors and supervisors.
17	Permit from city when using land and equipment under city control.
16	The school should also organize adult groups to the limit of its ability.
15	(Use school yards, gymnasiums, swimming pools, etc.)
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<i>Preschool Group</i>	
6	Organized in the neighborhood with parent coöperation. Assisted by civic organizations, playground and recreation commission, and board of education or any comparable department.
5	(Use vacant lots, back yards, roof gardens, garden courts, play street, etc.)
4	
3	
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Such an agreement would not prevent either the city or State arms of the government pushing activities for all ages to the

limit on their own properties. Thus the school might, in addition to having responsibility for the out-of-school activities from the ages of seven to eight, be also responsible for many adult activities. I believe that any school facilities not utilized by the school arm should be available to the other municipal arms to the limit of any unused facilities. These might be illustrated diagrammatically as follows:



It is obvious that an advisory committee tying up these governmental arms would be of no use unless it carried with it extended power. Such an advisory committee might be valuable if it could choose an executive who would, at one and the same time, be an executive for the municipal arm of the government as well as for the school arm. Coördination of activities would then be made possible merely by the two groups employing the same executive. Such an advisory committee, if it carried authority, could geographically subdivide large cities and set up district councils. These district councils should represent all of the agencies operat-

ing in a particular district, the school, municipality, settlements, churches, club organizations, and in some instances even private industries. These people could from time to time meet and divide responsibility in certain phases of activity for the community. Private and semiprivate groups which would not merge into such a plan should have community financial support withdrawn. Municipal or school arms refusing to coöperate

should be forced to do so by administrative officials, and if administrative officers refuse to act, the people should have initiative and power to force them to do so.

There is every indication that the school must take the leading part in this coöperative community plan. The school buildings are conveniently located. As a rule the buildings represent the best facilities in the community. Theoretically, the school should have trained leaders. The activities in the school building during the evenings, Saturdays, and vacation periods do not interfere with the primary function of the school. The school program now includes almost the entire ga-

mut of community recreational activities—games, manual and household arts, music, dramatics, forums, etc. The teaching staff should be so organized that many of the teachers would have responsibility from two in the afternoon until ten at night. Janitors should have their hours set for the cleaning of the building based upon the convenience of the people using it, not upon the mere convenience of the custodian. The year-round teaching responsibility with reasonable vacation periods should be considered. All activities which are taught in the school should be organized from the standpoint of giving children an opportunity to participate in these activities outside the so-called classroom. The school building should be teeming with activities as is the case in any well-organized community recreation center, boys' clubs, or settlements. The trouble here is that we are bound by tradition. Teachers are supposed to have their hats on five minutes to three. They must take alertness courses. Some of them have become so alert that they have no time to practise their alertness, but they do, of course, get the additional salary increments (which are purely incidental). Teachers must have their suitcases packed Friday afternoon so that they lose no time in getting out of the community. They stay away every vacation.

Customs in many States also regulate what is called the legal school day but State laws are remedying these and legal school days are midnight to midnight. Customs also fix the status of the custodian. His hours are fixed. Where he is given a flat rate to care

for the building he hires assistants at times when he can get them for the least financial consideration but seldom at a time which would fit better into the program for the use of the building.

Custom again maintains that much of our public education shall be aimed at passing courses, graduating, and meeting the entrance requirements to colleges. This continues although a large proportion of the students never go to college; hence, we drill into pupils things they do not want and they oblige us by promptly forgetting them.

These customs which handicap real community coöperation for a rich community life will be broken, and laws handicapping an extended program will be replaced when, and only when, citizens in the various communities stand up on their toes, speak out and say to the administrative officials, "These are our schools. We hire the teachers. We pay for the buildings. You may not know it but we even pay the janitors. In addition, the children in this community are ours and we are, likewise, members of the community. We demand a twenty-four-hour day use of these buildings and if any group of people in the community has a legitimate need it must be fulfilled by such use." Take the attitude of the army—we do not ask, we tell them.

When the people make these demands not only of the school, but of municipal officials and all the semiprivate organizations which are supported by the public, we may have the foundation laid for some profitable community relationships.

Relation of the School to Other Educative Forces in the Community

H. W. Hurt

EDITOR'S NOTE: *H. W. Hurt, who received his doctor of philosophy degree from Columbia, is a former high-school principal and college president. He is the editor of The College Blue Book, prepared for school-guidance use, and also the National Director of Research for the Boy Scouts of America—the writer of major handbooks. Financed by Rockefeller grant, he recently completed a four-year research on "character," some findings of which he is publishing under the title The Influencing of Character.*

E. K. F.

THE SCHOOL of today finds itself surrounded by organizations—not hostile but friendly—groups wanting to help. It is also surrounded by forces which are operating independently, frequently commercially—and which are significantly educative. Just what should be the relation of the school to such factors as we move towards a better social order?

The school may oppose them. The school may ignore them. The school may tolerate them. The school may use them.

To "oppose" implies a justified monopoly on learning. To "ignore" carries the feel of self-sufficiency. To "tolerate" involves half recognition, but no sense of real utility. To "use" means that these factors offer values which help the school help the child to grow.

No argument is needed to stress the fact that the trend in modern life is towards "working together"—not only "live and let live" but the larger "live and help live."

The school, as but one of many factors in the life of youth, shares its primacy with home and church and leisure forces.

In general it may be observed that organizations have a sort of basic biologic law or "urge incorporate" to self-preservation. Organizations tend strongly to become self-centered—originally conceived as means towards ends, they come to regard their own

perpetuation as the most important step towards the end. They are quite naïve in their sincerity. Organizations, therefore, tend to conservatism. They exist for specifically cited purposes and are a bit cold to things outside even if just outside, except as these "outside" things promise value to the organization—or its major purposes.

Schools, therefore, have been and need to be cautious about being "used" by outside forces. Probably avoidance of commercialization was one of the earliest revulsions against community interaction—and properly so. Then, too, the tasks of the school are measurably prescribed by State courses of study, by entrance requirements from institutions beyond it, while the curriculum, as some one has suggested, gets new things put in, but rarely do we take anything out—so that time becomes an important factor.

The school's own use of extracurricular activities—that remarkably valuable series of relations and enterprises outside the covers of books but related to school life—have led schools to question how closely they should coöperate with outside factors.

Before listing some criteria which the school may use, let us examine for a moment the whole situation. In our present secondary-school ensemble bearing on this, we have four major factors: (1) extensive courses of instruction; (2) numerous extracurricular activities; (3) extraschool agencies centering about the school; (4) the total-life situation—moving at lightning speed, devising new techniques, using new approaches, solving old problems and thereby creating new ones—a colorful, swift, adventurous, impelling stream.

Without defining "education," what is the relative significance of these factors in the

modern scene? It might not be unfair to suggest that (1) is traditional, (2 and 3) are modern trends, and (4) like penetrating gas is at the window panes, doors, and keyholes, bristling with reality.

It might be fair also to suggest that (1) is heavily symbolic, dealing with symbols of reality, with words; (2) deals with real situations in a relatively narrow area; (3) varying with the agency, encourages activities and relationships generally of a non-school sort but related to reality; and, in (4) symbolism gives way completely to reality—"talking about" is lost in doing it—second-hand experience here becomes first-hand reality.

It might be fair to suggest also that (1) The "brackets" of the school curriculum organization—history, language, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, geography, etc.—while logical, are artificial. In life one rarely encounters such compartments of experience. (2) Life deals with a *job*, a human need to be met, *sex and home relations, religious interests, recreation, health, social life, political action, community coöperation*, etc.

As I understand the purpose of high-school curricula, it is to get young people ready to fit into life. Certainly when the average citizen looks at the school "brackets" and then at the "brackets" of life demand, he feels somewhat baffled. The transition from (1) to (4) seems to necessitate something of the miraculous. To aid us perchance in trying to relate these two sets of organized experience, let us look for a moment at the nature of the process of education.

SOME BASIC THESES

1. Education is a progressive adjustment to life; it goes on all the time, everywhere.
2. Everything experienced contributes to it, although our attention is selective.
3. It is a process of self-action, self-experienced and self-interpreted, not "done to" but "done by."
4. It is a lifelong process of experiencing, resulting in learning.

5. It happens best under conditions of inner interest and motive.

6. Its purpose is the greatest possible individual happiness and social well-being at the same time.

In the light of these theses, what are the relative rôles of curriculum, extracurricular projects, organized contacts with life, and life itself? These tell us in no uncertain tone that the teacher no longer does all the teaching; our every experience, homes, churches, streets, summer camp, movies, press, radio, play groups, necessity, suffering, joy, friends, foes—all these bring their contribution to our knowledge, stimulate our desires, leave with us attitudes, and spur us to self-desired action.

Indeed, the school curriculum (varied though it be) dealing heavily with symbols of reality, with words about action, provides relatively little opportunity for *doing*—it is chiefly concerned with second-hand action. The extracurricular activity, on the other hand, offers some interesting contrasts. It deals with actualities—the school paper is *printed*; the football game *happens*—it is not just talk or dealing with "play situations."

Furthermore, the extracurricular activity affords a chance for self-expression, self-direction, and initiative. A very large share of the lives of young people is regimented. School curricula and classes and Sunday schools are largely adult-minded and adult dominated; home affairs and even playgrounds are sometimes heavily directed. Into such a "keep in line" sort of directed and prescribed series of affairs comes the extracurricular activity or the Scout Troop or the Boys' Club where one can *have desires of one's own*, can initiate and carry on real projects. Little wonder that youth answer eagerly to the call of such fundamental urges which eventuate in leadership.

Little wonder that youth respond very naturally to the newer forms of educational opportunity whether they be positive or negative—when they involve the active, the spontaneous, the self-choice, the line of in-

terest and of personal agency. Carefully analyzed, it probably is that element not providing satisfaction in other areas that pulls youth into evil gangery as well as good.

OUTSIDE AGENCIES

What are some of the outside agencies which call for "two-way" integration? The "time" of youth is a significant thing to consider: one third is spent (or should be) in sleep; one fourteenth to one twelfth is spent in school; some ninety-nine per cent are in homes, though samplings indicate that one in four is in a broken home; one per cent are in institutions for the dependent, delinquent, or defective. Probably forty per cent of the first eighteen years is spent outside home and school in more or less spontaneous free-time action as limited by local opportunities.

Let us list some of the major factors and agencies operating outside the schools up to the age of eighteen years.

The Churches

The 232,154 churches of our 214 denominations probably deal with twenty-five million youths. They have 9 churches for every 10 public schools; have forty-five million members over 13 years of age, 55 per cent of those available, and have 5 women for every 4 men; they have four billions in property, and spent about a billion a year in 1929. Recent censuses show the church membership keeping pace with population increase.

The most significant development in this zone, in addition to the worship activities involving over ten million under 13 years of age (18.4 per cent of the whole membership) and in addition to the twenty-five million in Sunday school, is the contact of these churches with over five million through young people's societies and another million through boy and girl agencies.

The Boy Agencies

Eleven national agencies enroll 2,100,000. These listed in the order of their size include: The Boy Scouts of America, the Y.M.C.A., the 4-H Clubs; Boys Clubs of America, Order of DeMolay, Order of Builders for Boys, Y.M.H.A., Knighthood of Youth, Big Brothers Federation, Boy Rangers of America, Columbian Squires. These cooperate with schools. Their membership is largely in the 12- to 15-year zone, with few older or younger, and

the average term of membership is about two years.

Girl Agencies

Five national agencies reach 1,152,000 as members. These five agencies are the 4-H Clubs, the Girl Scouts, the Camp Fire Girls, the Y.W.C.A., and the Big Sister Federation.

Neighborhood Agencies

The 450 settlement houses afford expression chances to 2,000,000 people; the 8,000 to 10,000 small-town community centers reach another 2,000,000; 724 day nurseries handle 34,000 at one time, and the 11,171 public nurses make 15,000,000 visits a year. Here are great educative forces seeking, as Jane Addams phrased it, "to evoke latent capacities in the young, to cherish the settled contributions of the old, and to interpret the spiritual resources of the community towards nobler ends."

These offer rich zones of promise for developing some unity of concern and approach to school time and out-of-school time.

Now what specific relations may be justified between the school and organizations approaching the school with more or less kindred aims, such as the Parent-Teachers Association, the Junior Red Cross, the Boy Scouts, Hi-Y, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, the 4-H Clubs, the Knighthood of Youth, and others offering national and local cooperation and program operation? Are there any criteria which might be set up?

Criterion I—To Aid the School or to Further the Organization

Does the organization plan to "use the school" or "be used by it"? Is it approaching the school to aid the school in the school's youth problems or is it approaching the school to further the organization's own advantages? Of course, commercialization is to be avoided with extreme care.

Criterion II—Supplementing or Duplication

Does the program proposed offer young people a needed type of experience not adequately provided for in the school's program?

Criterion III—Adding to the School-Staff Load

Where an organization seeking or offering cooperation with the school involves tasks which add to the actual load of the school staff, the proposal must be scrutinized with care to be certain that the values released are "worth the candle"

of effort involved. The door should not be closed to such but they must be weighed.

Criterion IV—Drawing in Leadership

Where the organization will involve the "bringing in" or the mobilization of outside power to carry on the new activity, with adequate school overhead responsibility, that would seem to be something to be encouraged, providing the activities and the leadership were educationally desirable.

Criterion V—Promoting Coöperative Interaction With the Community

Where the organization involves bringing about interaction with the community—as the P.T.A. which stimulates interaction with the homes—the school should welcome the organization as it is really a school-home society through which each would help the other with their common task.

Criterion VI—Values to the Boys or Girls

Of course the ultimate test of any proposal must be sought in what it offers to youth in the way of opportunity and value.

These simple and rather obvious criteria are proffered under the broad assumption that the extension of the extracurricular plan of wider experience outside usual curriculum is valuable, if not in fact essential.

They also involve the assumption that the work of any agency dealing with youth is to be aided by interaction with the home, the church, and others which are dealing with these young people.

Let us examine the nature of the coöperation in one or two cases.

Parent-Teachers Association

Structurally it is a body of parents and teachers with its own officers, generally of parents, meeting at the school, coming to know the staff and building understanding. With understanding many things can develop. Smoother relationships result, comparison of experiences of teacher and parent may help both in understanding why a problem exists and aiding the child to solve it. As an organizational vehicle the Association can aid the school in community-wide ways. It serves the school's interests and the child's problems directly.

Let us examine a different sort of organization dealing directly with the young people:

Boy Scouts of America

Here is an agency definitely designed to supplement school experience with outdoor associations and activities, service and leadership opportunities, and personal ideals.

Its relation is twofold, reaching out into the homes of the community for its Troop Committee (to which the head of the school or his representative belongs) and bringing together under the auspices and roof of the school a group ready to serve the institution.

The adult leader may be a member of the teaching staff but more often will come from the neighborhood's own man resources—but operating under the supervision and authority of the committee. The basic idea of the leadership is "boy leadership" under man-leader counsel and oversight. This makes the relationships within the unit truly educative, involving practice in leadership and the bearing of responsibility.

The indoor Troop meetings are held at the school. The smaller subunits of the Troop, the Patrols, meet at the homes. The search for service opportunities is an important phase of citizenship training and this centers around the school and the community. In cases of emergency the Scout Troop is ready to serve the school or the neighborhood as needed.

Here we have important experiences and skills not a part of the school curriculum, plus service values to the schools with the tie-in that pulls the homes involved into a closer unity. The special parents' nights and public meetings call the parents to the institution and have important by-products. The school and the Troop Committee also have representation on the Local Scout Council which is in charge of Scout training and activities in the area involved—so here arises a new city-wide contact.

OUTSIDE EDUCATIVE FORCES

As stated above there is also a group of educative forces and factors operating outside the school but whose influence (positive or negative) impinges on the young people in their out-of-school hours. These are not organized primarily as social educative forces but as commercial enterprises. They are so perfectly obvious that many teachers are oblivious to their existence—like the air breathed. This group of forces includes the library and readings, the radio, the press, the motion-picture theater, other commercialized recreation, the playground and play in gen-

eral, the camping movement, industry and the job, and free time.

Here are opportunities for relating school-work to these zones of influence.

Many schools have related their programs to their local city library with particular reference to *reading for credits* or *reading for requirements*. At present thirty-nine per cent of all books in circulation from public libraries are taken by persons under sixteen years of age. Now we have the new commercial circulating loan libraries as well. A new area of possibility lies in the direction of encouraging *reading for pleasure*—reading as a hobby. We publish ten thousand new titles among the two hundred and twenty-five million books manufactured each year. Here is a leisure force in character influencing second only to persons.

While the *radio* has been used in numerous schools and studied particularly in the rural schools, much remains untouched in the usual broadcasts from our 586 stations. Many a teacher would do well to watch the schedules of radio programs for features with a home "tie-in" to the school subjects. In 1930 we had 13,478,600 receiving sets. On January 1, 1934, the figure was estimated at over eighteen million, reaching nearly half our homes.

The *newspapers and periodicals* in the homes and in the public reading rooms of our six thousand libraries lend themselves to school uses not yet attempted; indeed, in ways that can develop discrimination. We publish daily a newspaper for every two people. We have 36 periodicals with circulations over a million and 75 more with over twenty thousand readers. How can these be utilized?

In many communities, committees of educators and parents have carried through co-operative projects with the management of the local motion-picture theaters in effecting better choices of films. The Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Inc., at 28 West 44th Street, New York, has a booklet telling how this may be done. We need to keep in mind how tremendous this

fourth largest business is—reaching one hundred and fifteen million persons a week, with commercial pictures largely prepared for adults but seen by audiences one third of whom are under sixteen years of age and three fourths of whom are women and girls. The investment in this business is two billion and it annually produces one hundred and fifty thousand feet of negative and a billion feet of positive film—85 per cent of the world production. This enterprise uses what is probably the greatest educative devices ever developed and, despite the excellent educational films, the bulk of the film is commercial. Here is a great force.

One of the answers to growing leisure and to the attendant problems of *commercialized recreation* lies in the school's own organizations "creating" their own recreation. To buy a ticket to some one else's show is less trouble than building one's own but so doing fails to bring the educative values released only through the creative effort. The totals served are tremendous, being well in excess of two million patrons daily. Coney Island, New York, alone has twenty million visitors a year.

Then there are influences and factors such as *play* which reach all in spirit and nearly all to some extent, though the playground facilities serve two and a quarter million daily. To the child at play, play is life itself—it is self-validating. Its motive is internal and eternal. It is nature's way of learning. The rich atmosphere of child satisfaction in play makes it full of promise for educative results. It is about the only "course" available for training the emotions. The conditions involving choices, attitudes, emotions, and reactions towards others, which abound in spontaneous play, give it a rare character potency.

Safety is a great educative force conducted nationally in an effort to enrich life by practices which tend towards continuing life. It is already in our schools in many valuable ways. We still kill 18,610 children by accidents each year and maim uncounted

thousands. The motor car is our most deadly killing weapon. Here we need to do more.

Schools can reach beyond their own well-considered health measures into stimulating and aiding their youth to make and follow their own *health and recreation program*. Youth should be encouraged to lead a somewhat balanced life in which outdoor activity, intellectual growth, spiritual interests, hobbies and arts and social experiences have their place.

Camping as an educational and recreational device is now used by most social-work organizations. Schools can establish contacts with it, indeed, some are using it.

Schools through *guidance programs* have become interested in youth and *jobs*. Probably in the lengthened leisure now in prospect, there will be an added demand for the school to render a new individual service. These are but samples of the abundant outside factors and pressures and calls and opportunities.

Certainly it would seem that, where important outside factors like play, for example, have excellent national and local organization and personnel, ways may be sought and found for this zone of interest and the school to mutually serve and be served.

In addition to the older study of H. C. Courtis in *Education Through Play* which pointed out the "success" superiority in terms of his criteria of athletes over scholars—we might ponder another. In the *Peabody Journal of Education*,¹ there was reported a study of 308 graduates of the 1914-1919 classes of the Rome Free Academy, Rome, N.Y. With a rather impressive criteria for determining "success"—they found

1. Those graduates who were leaders in the various activities of the high school have made a better showing in nearly all of the factors considered than have the scholars or the members of the random group.

2. Those graduates who were scholars in high school have shown a higher degree of success than have members of the random group.

3. Those graduates who have been most successful in later life outside of school are not those who were the most successful in the scholastic work of the school but rather those who have excelled in extracurricular or leadership activities.

They raised four queries:

1. Do extracurricular activities represent non-essentials?

2. Under ideal school organization should excellence in scholarship not be correlated highly with success in life?

3. Should the aim of the school be to prepare for worldly success, or should the goal be primarily nonmaterialistic?

4. How important is it to conserve and develop leadership?

Certainly the extracurricular, the activities, the leadership, the values of the life experiences are more important than some very conservative "learn-a-lot-of-facts" sort of educators have suspected.

COORDINATION

There is an important task of coördination which remains for some agency to do. Bill Jones is in *junior high school*, he goes to a *Sunday school*, he has a *home* in a certain *neighborhood*, he is a member of a *Scout Troop* and frequents a certain *playground* from time to time. He goes *camping* in the summer and attends *movies* twice a week. Those dealing with Bill in these different settings know very little or nothing of each other!

There is little or no coördination—actually some of these leaders should get a chance to discuss Bill with some of the other leaders. If Bill becomes delinquent, then, in well-equipped communities, a study is made of Bill from his various angles; but if he is normal and keeps out of trouble he gets a minimum of check-up from all sides. Here is an opportunity for the school to serve as a clearing and coördinating point through coöperating with these various agencies and factors touching their same youth. The whole movement towards progressive personnel records gears into this: individualizing school experience—keeping one eye on the individual and the other on life.

¹ Volume X, May 1933, pp. 321-329.

The Schoolman and the Crisis in Education

Hyman Haydis

EDITOR'S NOTE: Hyman Haydis is teacher of English and social studies, Lockwood Junior High School, Oakland, California; is a candidate for his doctor's degree at the University of California; and is president of Lambda Chapter of Phi Delta Kappa. This article by Mr. Haydis is a forceful discussion of a very important phase of community relationships. He shows the why and wherefore of much opposition to programs of public education and points out very forcefully the injustices brought about by the wide variance in the distribution of wealth in a democracy. This discussion is as convincing as it is bold, and is as timely as is the need of public education, for public education must be maintained at public cost.

C.F.A.

THE DEPRESSION fell with crushing effect upon all activities of the social order, but nowhere with more devastating effect than upon the schools of the United States. With no national system of schools, in a Nation famed for the best and worst schools in the world, those States ranking highest in their offering of educational opportunity find themselves struggling bitterly with vested interests that have aroused a heavily burdened taxpayer to cut governmental costs at whatever social sacrifice. In those backward States of the South and Southwest, where perhaps the depression has wrought the greatest ruin, school people and laymen interested in schools are almost resigned to the belief that public indifference makes the attainment of equal educational opportunity almost impossible.

With one or the other of these impossible situations upon them, one group of men in education decided that to be idle during these trying times was to contribute to social suicide. They sensed the need for some group to bring to individuals in a personal way what the National Education Association is doing for the country at large and some few courageous State organizations are attempt-

ing to do for their regions. They felt the need to do some things which at present are not expedient or politic for these organizations to do.

First, they decided that there was an imperative need for some group to bring to schoolmen in the field, and removed from centers of thought, some fundamental and stabilizing conceptions of their institution and of themselves as members of a group working for the common welfare of children and society.

It has been generally recognized that schoolmen are often their own worst enemies. This is especially true of public-school men who fail to see themselves as a part of a State and national system of education, and represent special enterprises of education, kindergarten, elementary, secondary, or higher education, one in opposition to the other. It is especially true when legislatures are in session and they attempt to obtain State support, not for a State system of education, but for schools as disintegrated educational enterprises!

It is especially true of other public- and private-school men who pride themselves upon a somewhat facile power of expression and ability to play with words. They are individuals who take advantage of every opportunity for public expression to ridicule or to emphasize the weaknesses of the profession. They make public criticism that should be made before a professional audience of their own group, but a professional audience which they are lacking because of personal idiosyncrasies or a general realization that they now lack a sense of balance and have lost their critical insight.

And it is truer still of yet another group of schoolmen, who, being experts in their

own special fields, undertake to speak authoritatively and destructively about work of which they know little or nothing. Of all the offenders at this time, it is generally recognized that the greatest evil is generated by the unfortunate oracular utterances emanating from the offices of instructors in higher education and retired public servants.

The two latter groups are even more harmful to the cause of public education in our democracy than the first. For where the individuals of the first group are pitted one against the other by experienced politicians for the purpose of political expediency, the latter are victims of their own perverted sense of critical judgment, and a profound self-conceit!

First, then, was the realization of the need to set forth some basic principles or statements in an attempt to bring about some degree of unanimity within a group to the end that it might not defeat its own purposes.

To unify the group, to give guidance, counsel, and data, if necessary, to the men in the field, and to prepare for the group a statement of principles, backed by factual evidence pertinent to the situation in California, the following committees were set up: (1) A Committee on the Problem of What to Teach in the Schools; (2) Committee on Guidance, Vocational, and Adult Education; (3) Committee on School Finance; (4) Committee on Professional Ethics and Public School Personnel; (5) Committee on Reorganization and Administration; (6) Committee on Public Relations.

The committees were made up of university men, city superintendents, principals, and teachers, usually one or more from each group on a committee.

The results have been most gratifying. Some of the committees completed their work of stating fundamental principles. Others are still working away. All have made excellent progress reports. To more than three hundred men has come a renewed faith in the educational leadership of their State, a feeling of solidarity and the result-

ant loss of that "scared rabbit" sensation, and inestimable benefits from mutual inspiration and guidance.

The Committee on Public Relations is still working away at a survey of the group to ascertain the number, type, and kind of community contacts made by schoolmen, or which schoolmen believe might be made with benefit to the school and the public. This work should be very fruitful when completed.

Second, the group realized that vested interests may disseminate propaganda and charge the cost to a water bill, an electric-light bill, or make it a part of some other public-service charge. They sensed that leading dailies, because of the hazard to their advertising, could not be depended upon to disseminate information concerning legislative investigations which expose selfish corporate interests. They believed that there was need for some group to render such public service. There was widespread recognition of the need to know the purposes behind many State and pseudo-civic organizations, a need to know whether they existed definitely for the purpose of opposing the social services of government or whether they were honestly organized for the purpose of advancing social progress.

Much illuminating information has been gathered and disseminated to men in the field.

One piece of information was a letter¹ from President A. F. Hockenbeamer of the Pacific Gas and Electric Company, San Francisco, California, to Mr. A. W. Robertson, President, Philadelphia Company, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, in which was related the convenient method of cementing friendship between his company and some two hundred banks of California—by keeping some million and a half dollars on deposit without taking interest; and giving the banks

¹ Exhibit No. 4470, Senate Document 92, 70th Congress, First Session Federal Trade Commission's Investigation of the Activities of the Power Companies in the United States [June 27, 1929].

the assurance that any checks received from them for the sale of P.G. and E. stock would be immediately redeposited with the bank and left there so long as the company did not need it!

As Will Rogers once said, in his daily column, when the crisis is over, we will not point with pride to the conduct of the banks during this time of stress and trial! But that is another story.

Another illuminating piece of information was the presentation of facts showing the relationship between the public utilities in California and the California Taxpayers' Association:

1. One utility official who is also a director of the California Taxpayers' Association drew a salary of \$100,000 per year.

2. Another official drew \$75,000.

3. Total salary of public-utility officials in the State of California who received \$5,000 a year and over amounted to \$8,601,690.49.

4. Of the utilities which support the California Taxpayers' Association the power-company group alone makes an annual contribution to the Association of \$30,000. It pays \$24,000 a year for State-wide advertising and even spends \$3,600 a year for radio broadcasting.

5. And State Senator Herbert C. Jones says: "It is an astonishing fact that these power companies pay the dues of their employees in our various service clubs and of their executives in numerous high-priced, fashionable social clubs. It is easy to see how any movement launched in these clubs to correct abuses by utilities could be quickly blocked and discredited."

Still other and even more illuminating facts have come to light and to the attention of schoolmen, citizens, and surprised local chambers of commerce concerning the activities of the California State Chamber of Commerce.

It is true that the bill which the supporters of the public-school system regarded as the most objectionable measure of the whole hostile program (legislation designed to wreck the school system) was a bill sponsored by the State Chamber of Commerce which takes from boards of education the control of school budgets and turns this authority over to political boards—namely, boards

of supervisors. It is also a fact that the same group of legislators who supported this proposal of yours were supporting the hostile legislation of all the other groups above mentioned. In fact, a group of legislators took the result of the research of California Taxpayers' Association and presented it under their own names in the report of the Senate Fact Finding Committee.

Furthermore, the industrial interests that dominate the United States Chamber of Commerce are substantially the same interests that dominate the State Chamber of Commerce and the California Taxpayers' Association. In many instances the leaders in your Chamber of Commerce are also the leaders in the California Taxpayers' Association.¹

This letter, written January 12, 1934, has not yet been answered. Schoolmen and public-minded citizens are alert and believe that until those destructive critics of our educational program are willing to make some definite constructive proposals or come out in favor of a positive educational program, it is only reasonable to assume that their position remains the same.

Finally, there was the realization that, in many instances because of stimulation from forces opposed to public education, the public itself was not *en rapport* with the schools. It was evident that the parents whose children schoolmen were serving most loyally and faithfully doubted the efficacy of the work being done, and were reluctant in their support of an institution established for the benefit and hope of their children. It was evident that the school had either advanced more rapidly than its beneficiaries were able to appreciate, or else schoolmen had neglected to inform the public of its purposes and program. It was thought necessary to help the public rethink its school program.

In order to meet this need a group of some twenty men met under an able leader to consider the conference method as a means of interpreting the schools to the public.

"Is it possible," they asked, "for school-

¹ Letter of Mrs. Maud Clark Glasson, State Chairman of the Committee on Vocational Opportunities for the American Association of University Women, to the State Chamber of Commerce asking them to state their position on educational matters.

men to meet laymen on common ground and exchange their best thought for the benefit of children and society?

"What is the best procedure to pursue to learn what the parent expects and wants from the school for the children?

"How may we convince the public that we want to serve in the best interests of childhood and society?"

The group had but several conferences before it discovered that there were inherent in the conference method many possibilities—possibilities for bringing schoolmen together for pooled judgment and united action, possibilities for administrators to derive the best thought from teachers and to interpret the school with them, and even greater possibilities, perhaps, of learning from children what they think and expect of the school.

As a result of this training in the conference method, a number of the men ventured to conduct conferences with Dads' Clubs and Parent-Teachers Association groups to consider such questions as:

What do you want your child to learn?

What is the purpose of art (or other specific subjects) in education?

What do you want your child to be?

What are the qualifications of a good citizen?

To what extent can we allow controversial subjects in the classroom?

What *are* the "fads and frills" of education?

Groups of schoolmen have met to consider some of the implications of the present social and economic situation for school people. They have discussed such questions as:

In view of the activities and political influence of public utilities and of banks, what should be the attitude of school people towards public ownership of utilities and the nationalization of banks?

Is there any political movement in America today whose program incorporates the best social

insights of specialists in the fields of education, recreation, parks, libraries, health and medicine, utilities, banks, unemployment and old age—which, in short, has a comprehensive program that reflects social responsibility throughout?

What is the significance for democracy of the tremendous psychological pressures of such socially irresponsible commercial agencies as the press, radio, advertising, movies, and lobbies upon opinion and disposition?

In view of the great pressure of commercial advertising upon the time and substance of consumers, what hope is there that the political, cultural, and esthetic activities will secure the proper attention of consumers?

What significance has the phenomena of overproduction, underconsumption, and unemployment for our educational program? What about educational economics? What about our socio-political economic philosophy?

What should be the attitude of professional people towards labor unions?

Other groups, and they are active teachers, are meeting voluntarily to discuss ways and means in which they may give greater vitality to their subjects—biology, chemistry, physics, the social sciences—to adjust better the children to the changing order of the New Deal. Through vigorous contact with one another, schoolmen are increasingly becoming a part of the social order and giving more thought to the problems with which the patrons and the children of the schools are confronted.

How far-reaching will be the results of these three types of activities will depend on the continuing energy and dedication of this group to the service of public education. But there is a deepening feeling that through the trial and disappointments of the crisis in education will emerge a better understanding and appreciation of schoolmen for one another, a better understanding of the school by the public, and better schools.

Democracy Through Education

James T. Whittlesey

EDITOR'S NOTE: James T. Whittlesey is principal of the Boude Storey School, Dallas, Texas. In this discussion Mr. Whittlesey contrasts the values and effects of education through memorization and education through reason. He concludes with the values obtained through a type of creative education which must be different from the traditional type in order best to serve a democracy. C. F. A.

IN THE EARLIEST days of our Nation's existence, Thomas Jefferson, writing to his friend Cabell, said: "I am convinced that the information of the people at large can alone make them safe.—To instruct the mass of our citizens in these their rights, interests, and duties are the objects of education." Over a hundred years later, Woodrow Wilson wrote in *The State*: "Without popular education no government which rests on popular action can long endure. The people must be schooled in the knowledge and the virtues upon which the maintenance and success of free institutions depend." Between the times these two statements were made by two of the greatest proponents of American democracy, there stretches over a century, replete with similar expressions of the need for education in the perpetuation of American democratic ideals.

This concern for the perpetuation of democratic ideals is reflected in the acts of State legislatures. Forty-four States now have laws requiring that the Constitution of the United States be taught in various grades of the public schools. Practically every school in America has one or more courses in community civics. In spite of the attention which has been given to the teaching of citizenship by our lawmakers, our educators, and our public-spirited citizens, it is extremely doubtful whether the general level of citizenship has been raised very much. Writers and speakers are not lacking who declare that crime is on the increase; that the aver-

age citizen is not sufficiently interested in public affairs even to exercise the right of franchise; that our cities are governed by "ward bosses" because of the public apathy; that the schools have failed to produce the right type of citizens.

The challenge has been thrown to the public schools to do something about it, on the ground that the development of citizenship is the *raison d'être* of education at public expense. The schools cannot escape, and do not desire to escape their responsibility for developing the right kind of citizenship in our country. The problem is largely one of method and organization.

Tradition is the greatest hindrance to the development of democratic ideals in the schools. Tradition has been in practically every instance a hampering influence, both for the state and for the individual. In both cases, China is the classic example. Bound for centuries to the traditions of the past, hundreds of millions of Chinese people have remained practically serfs. The great Chinese nation with its vast resources and almost unlimited wealth has been for the same reason a prey to the other more progressive nations of the world. The great challenge to education is that it break with the past in every instance where the needs of present-day living demand a change. The junior high schools alone of all the units of the public-school system seem to be in a position to strike out towards the realization of the real ends of education, unfettered by the deadening influence of traditions.

In this tremendously important matter of citizenship, the traditional method was to have the pupils study the Constitution, even memorizing parts or all of it. If they could recite it at the proper time, they were commended, and usually the longer the recitation, the greater the commendation. A

typical textbook for that type of citizenship training written by A. A. Young in 1830 bore the following pretentious title: *Introduction to the Science of Government and Compend of Constitutional and Civil Jurisprudence, Comprehending a General View of the Government of United States and of the Government of the State of New York, together with the Most Important Provisions of the Constitutions of the Several States: Adapted to Purposes of Instruction in Families and Schools*. Memorization of facts has been one of the traditional methods of learning which has been hard to change in school practice.

The other great traditional drawback to the development of true democratic citizenship has been the autocratic organization of schools. Dr. Rugg often illustrates the tenacity with which schools cling to traditional organization by referring to an incident which happened in one of the traditional schoolrooms. Of course the desks were screwed to the floor in rows, because that was the way desks had always been fixed. A cyclone struck the little schoolhouse, taking away the roof and most of the walls, but after the storm was over, there sat the desks, still screwed to the floor in rows, a realistic proof of the resistance of tradition to the changes of time or the fury of the elements. Traditional organization placed the teacher as commander and the pupil as obeyer. It was, and still is, the easiest way, but it does not contribute to the perpetuation of democratic ideals.

As a child of democracy, education is under a very real obligation to contribute to the perpetuation of democratic ideals, but, even beyond any sense of original obligation, the enrichment of human life by preparing boys and girls to live abundantly in the "land of the free and the home of the brave." Just what are the ideals of democracy that we wish to perpetuate? For the individual, it is "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness"; for the body politic it is "government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

In order to ensure these democratic ideals for the individual and for the state, education must be creative. The boys and girls must be given opportunities to develop from within, rather than to perform tasks which are imposed by a teacher or by a "system." "Life" means abundant living, not mere existence. It can only be achieved as the pupils develop broad appreciations of music, of art, of literature, of honesty, of the sacredness of personality, of all the thousand physical, intellectual, and spiritual values in life. "Liberty" implies freedom from all the fears which arise from ignorance and half truths, from a sense of inferiority, from a feeling that others have been unduly favored. "The pursuit of happiness" involves choosing a lifework and following it unhampered, choosing a mode of living in the light of the best wisdom of the ages, choosing a mate and making a home in the full knowledge of the responsibilities which it involves and the abilities required to maintain it successfully.

In relation to the state, "government of the people" implies the development of intelligent leadership in whatever individual it may be found. Government "by the people" involves the development of intelligent followership. Only when the wise are leading the wise can true democracy be expected. Government "for the people" demands the development of the attitude of working for the common good by both intelligent leaders and intelligent followers.

This is the challenge to modern education. The task of the schools is to provide the environment in which democracy can flourish and to devise opportunities for the development of those knowledges, skills, and attitudes which will be conducive to abundant living. Then, and only then, shall education have fulfilled its responsibility to the individual and to the state. If this service is not rendered by education, what institution of society or group of individuals is prepared to accomplish the task?

The Teacher as a Factor in Civic Affairs

George Hook

EDITOR'S NOTE: *George Hook is principal of Baker Junior High School, Denver, Colorado. Mr. Hook suggests some of the responsibilities and obligations incumbent upon teachers who are responsible for the training of our future citizens and who draw their pay checks from the public treasury. He also sets out how the teacher may meet these obligations and responsibilities through professional, civic, and political activities without compromise of position or show of personal ambition.*

C. F. A.

A GREAT DEAL has been written about the teacher as a teacher, and but little has been written about the teacher as a factor in civic affairs.

Perhaps the fact that so little *has been* written on the subject, may suggest the idea that there was relatively little that *could* be written; but even if this could be established as a fact, it must become a rapidly diminishing fact, for life with all its interests and intricacies must be known and experienced by him who would interpret it to today's children.

It is not only the privilege but the duty of the teacher to make first-hand contacts with people and their problems—to become himself a part of the social structure of which he is a student—if he is to be a positive force in his profession.

Professional duties as well as personal pursuits in the community cannot help widening the horizon and deepening the experience of the teacher as teacher.

Quite aside from the teacher's professional gain, the teacher has a double privilege and duty growing out of his participation in civic life: that of personal development and of community service.

Every individual has the right so to order his life that his individual talents may be developed and that his fundamental urges may be expressed with the hope that growth and happiness may result. Whether the state

exists for the individual, or the individual exists for the state, the fact remains that the development of the individual is a worthy and necessary objective.

By participating in the civic activities of the community the teacher not only gains professionally and personally, but he becomes a social factor; and it is here that he must assume the rôle, not of teacher, but of individual. Teachers, administrators, and boards of education are becoming increasingly aware of the teacher's manifold citizenship privileges and responsibilities—in politics, religion, recreation, business, and social life.

Consider briefly one instance of such awareness in the matter of politics. In a recent letter to the superintendent of schools in Denver, the president of the High School Masters' Guild writes:

There is a growing feeling, as manifest in numerous magazine articles, that too little attention is paid by members of the teaching profession to problems of government. Almost every profession is represented in the State legislature, which is supposed to represent all the people. It would seem that, because of certain training and profession, and as students of social conditions and needs, certain teachers or administrators might be preëminently qualified to represent the people on certain legislative bodies.

In reply, the superintendent stated the position of the administration:

... we do not wish to be in the position of directing, by the force of expressed attitude or suggestion, any of our people to enter such activity as your questions imply, but both the Board of Education and I wish to express our approval of such activity, within reasonable limits, and ... we wish also to commend it.

If a member of our corps were to be elected to the legislature, to take a specific illustration, such person would be given a leave of absence without pay for the time the legislature would be in session. This leave would have no effect upon his tenure as a teacher.

If a teacher is seeking election to a political office, obviously he must participate in political campaigns. The expediency of the individual's engaging in partisan politics may be open to question on the ground that he is a servant of all the people in his profession. His activity may be less open to question if his campaigning is carried on through the educational "bloc" of which he should be a select representative. Slowly but surely influence in politics is being wielded by various blocs or "pressure" groups such as labor, education, racial, taxpayers, religious, and others. Education is recognized as an asset to all; and the teacher who, as a representative of education, seeks election, is much less likely to be considered partisan or selfish in his motives.

One educator writes: "A teacher should participate sufficiently in political affairs to learn their meaning and to secure impressions and information necessary to proper interpretations to students of different phases of our political life."

It is indeed true that participation in politics makes a teacher a better teacher; it is equally true that teaching and the consequent knowledge of human nature, social problems, and the government of the young make a teacher a more effective individual in dealing with social problems, of which politics is a part.

The principles that apply to political participation apply also to the teacher's social and civic life. Viewed from the standpoint of individual liberty, the teacher has the right to decide for himself which groups shall claim his membership. But in all things he must remember that professionally he represents all groups, and in so doing he must jealously guard against affiliations that will brand him as narrow or self-seeking. His range of interests must be sufficiently wide and varied to represent fairly a cross section of the life of the community he serves. On the other hand, the number of associations that are possible are so numer-

ous as to make many impossible. To be a positive and integrated force as an individual in the community, the teacher must find a niche in which his interest and ability will enable him to make a real contribution to the group. Luncheon clubs, churches, Boy Scout councils, chambers of commerce, and other representative groups who, by vote or stated policy, seek to create certain favorable attitudes in the public mind, need the experience of the educator to interpret education and certain social-welfare points of view.

In cities and smaller communities all over the country teachers are exercising influence and leadership in civic affairs. Here is one who several times has been president of a civic forum club. Another has served on the board of trustees of a college the past twenty years. Through the initiative of one, a home for mentally defective children has been established and maintained. Another has furnished leadership in the creation of a "foundation," a fund held in trust to meet emergency needs of unfortunate people in critical times. Through his first-hand knowledge of social conditions in the immediate community of his school, another has largely directed the policy of a citizens' league for crime prevention. These examples could be multiplied many times.

In his activities in civic affairs, the teacher cannot, and often should not, entirely disassociate himself from his profession. His acts as a private citizen or as civic leader must always be consistent with the ethics of his profession. But he must bear in mind that he is a full-fledged citizen whose privileges are not different from those of other citizens. Too long the teacher has lacked courage or a working stock of social ideas which would enable him to meet his fellows on an equality. It is now high time that he "claim his rights and accept his responsibilities as a citizen and meet his peers from other callings in the arena of political and cultural controversy."

Adjusting the High-School Athletic Program

J. D. Hull

EDITOR'S NOTE: J. D. Hull is principal of the High School, Springfield, Missouri; has his doctor of philosophy degree from Yale University; and has served in his present position for ten years, long enough to win the respect and confidence of his patrons. Dr. Hull has done what few high-school administrators have been able to do: He has secured the coöperative approval of local sport editors, radio announcers, and other public and semipublic supporters in a program of intramural athletic sports that has enabled him and his faculty to discontinue costly intercity competitive athletics to the advantage of greater participation and reduced appropriations.

C. F. A.

AS EDUCATORS we are accustomed to speaking and writers who deplore an overemphasis on inter-high-school football. The injuring of boys in the strain of intense competition, the training of the few at the expense of the many, the encouraging of immature specialization in a game which cannot be carried over into adult life, and the development of maladjusted boys by subjecting them to blind hero worship are some of the more commonplace criticisms hurled at the sport. Frequently we agree with the critics but too often we give no more serious consideration to the improvement of a given situation than we would to the improvement of the weather. The present economic situation, with the attendant evaluating and either justifying or discarding of every school activity, provides excellent opportunities for the pruning, balancing, and general purging of our athletic programs.

It is not here maintained that all inter-high-school athletic activities should be abandoned. Undoubtedly many of them have their places in our educational scheme. Although a good case might be made for such a proposal, it is not even maintained that all inter-high-school football should be abol-

ished. There are many high schools which are easily able to finance interschool football properly and to provide necessarily expensive protective equipment for the intense competition of the game. These schools are located either in wealthy school districts or in districts so near to numerous rival schools that the traveling expenses of the teams are not excessive. In many of these schools the representative teams do not constitute the entire boys' physical-education programs and the representative teams are not developed at the expense of the boys unable to be chosen for the teams. And perhaps in some of these schools football heroes do not gain from local sports writers and from local athletic fans fatuous and inflated notions of their own importance which must be later dissipated by the stern and often sickening shocks of cold reality.

It is maintained that, in many high schools of the country, interschool football as now carried on cannot be justified and that it is possible to abandon the practice without disturbing school support. On the contrary it presents an opportunity of disarming some of the critics of the school.

The schools which clearly are not justified in continuing interschool football are those which are spending, on high-pressure methods, time and energy designed to maintain a student and a public interest in the sport. In many institutions the interest in interschool football is a dying ember continually fanned to life by coaches and administrators. It takes many artificial pep sessions to support the season. Even boys and girls who are aggressive and vociferous in their expression of this type of school spirit seem vainly to be trying to catch the spark of a sentimental devotion to a cause. They have

read about undying devotion to the dear old school but it's a bit unreal to them. They are often merely enacting a part and paying lip service to a spectacle to which the public assumes they have an undying personal loyalty. It is quite probable that this lack of interest is not merely a negative thing. These boys and girls are beginning to develop a sense of values which scorns the mob spirit and an emphasis on extrinsic interest. They should be encouraged. The advantages and disadvantages of inter-high-school football are rather evenly balanced under optimum circumstances. If the program cannot be financed without artificial stimulus (and very often great effort is needed to provide the proper expensive equipment), then a general anesthetic should be administered to interschool football and an intramural program of some sort should be developed to take its place.

Exclusive or even major emphasis on an intramural program is one way of providing an element of that refinement of the competitive spirit which seems to be so much needed in our life today. It provides an intrinsic motive so that a boy may be guided by the love of the game rather than a desire to demonstrate his superiority in the limelight afforded by intense competition. There is something wholesome about boys playing a game because they enjoy it and something entirely specious about their playing it in partisan passion for the plaudits of a multitude of frenzied followers. Those individuals who must have the thrill that comes from the approval of the crowd are extremely limited in their recreative possibilities.

While inter-high-school football has been considered a dangerous occupation and there has been much public demand for its reform, there has been little public demand that it be abolished. School officials who have considered such a step have doubtless been deterred by the influence of local followers of the sport and possibly by the influence of coaches who felt they had vested interests to defend. The Senior High School of

Springfield, Missouri, has recently abandoned interschool football for an intramural program and the move seems to have met with general approval in the community. There have certainly been no evidences of friction about the matter either within or without the school. It is rather generally felt that the objectives of the department of physical education will be more fully attained with an attendant economy of time, money, and energy.

Football has been an interschool sport in the Springfield Senior High School for the past thirty years. That it has been fairly successful when measured by competitive standards may be attested by the fact that during the past ten years the school has won approximately four fifths of the games scheduled. In no one of those seasons did the school fail to win a majority of the games. However, this very fact has militated against the financial success of the competitive program. With only occasional exceptions smaller schools nearby have refused to engage in football contests with the Springfield High School. (Probably quite properly so since differences in the weight and strength of two contesting teams tend to increase the possibilities of serious accidents.) The nearest schools of comparable size (approximately two thousand pupils) are almost two hundred miles away and since two colleges in the city help to divide athletic interest, it has always been a difficult matter to finance the long trips which the teams must necessarily make in competing with distant schools.

Thus for many years it has been a difficult struggle to carry on a football program and maintain the athletic association in a solvent condition. However, this has always been done. Expenditures have been regulated so that the athletic association has been and is at present in a solvent condition.

At intervals during the past three or four years, the principal of the school and the superintendent of schools have held conversations with the head football coach con-

cerning the possibilities of abandoning interschool football. The coach was encouraged in a feeling of security and in the feeling that his task was the building of worthwhile habits and attitudes rather than the winning of games. Probably the thing which caused the head coach to be willing to recommend whole-heartedly the abandonment of football was the fact that last spring he held spring football practice and found that great numbers of the boys actually enjoyed the game. They came out and played for the fun of it and not merely to triumph in glory over a traditional rival school. Thus encouraged, the football coach explained his plan to local sports writers and was able to enlist their support. They even promised to give as much publicity to an intramural program as they had been giving to the interschool program.

The proposal was next presented to the athletic committee of the school. It was the unanimous opinion of this committee that the time and energy spent on interschool games could not be justified and that the money spent for officials and transportation of teams would be more wisely spent on an intramural program for a greater number of boys.

Accordingly a formal letter was presented to the superintendent of schools (by the principal and the coach) recommending that an intramural program be substituted for an

interschool program in football and requesting that the board of education underwrite the cost of it since the new program would be in the nature of a physical-education program for all the boys of the school.

The superintendent of schools and the board of education were unanimous in endorsing the plan. Thus far, nothing but praise for the new program has come from the community. From the student body of the school, the only objections have come from two members of the first football team.

The athletic coach and the school officials feel that they have made a slight step towards more reasonable, more mature, and less primitive attitudes and practices. It is recognized that an intramural program must be carefully organized and guided. Without proper equipment and guidance, there are possibilities of greater physical injuries to participants than in the interschool program. It is recognized that varying policies in different athletic activities are not entirely consistent. Possibly even intramural football should not have been approved. Perhaps touch football will prove to be more practical and desirable. However, progress is rarely made on an even front. It is only by taking advantage of the characteristics of different times and of different localities, here a little and there a little (a kind of opportunism if you will), that we are eventually able to make genuine progress along a broad front.

School Radio

Russell V. Burkhard

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Burkhard is principal of the Frank A. Day Junior High School of Newtonville, Massachusetts. This work is not radio—it is infinitely better than radio for it is pupil activity.*

F. E. L.

IT is Thursday morning, the clock ticks around to 8.35. "Stand by," calls the operator at the control board. The pupil assistant signals, "All quiet," and the F. A. Day pupil broadcasting crew goes into action on their regular weekly program. Back in the homerooms throughout the school are seated about 650 ear-minded junior-high-school youngsters.

In our experimentation thus far we have found it beneficial to organize as the Day Broadcasting Club under the direction of one of our faculty, Alden Read. Our school practice, together with experience gained from the large Boston broadcasting stations, encourage us to anticipate the development of national radio time for public-school pupils.

The periodic exchange of ideas and problems and activities by pupils, for pupils, we believe will contribute in no small way to a better social understanding.

It is a thought-provoking job to plan the sequence and content of the programs. The rehearsals and final weekly offerings, of course, have their educational implication. We feel that these social experiences are rather valuable for the youngsters. Quite beyond the interest factor, the contacts are exploratory. Furthermore, they give an actual sampling of a very possible vocation, as well as coördination with the whole school.

Musical offerings and dramas have been given. Short travelogues are due for an inning, for there are several pupils who have traveled widely. The whole business is subject to change without notice. Teachers and pupils alike are quick to watch for items of appeal, modifying the programs as occasion requires.

The reader will note that in the manuscript of the week in which this was written there was a distinct attempt by the lead-off girl to feature school news first. Another pupil gave the city items, another the State, national, and world wide. For some time it has been found of value to offer a short question, often applicable to the season. The most thoughtful reply dropped in the radio answer box is read by the author the following week.

The F. A. Day School opens its daily work with a twenty-minute homeroom session. Representing as it does the entire cross section of the school population, it seems to be best adapted for the radio offering. Not only is there a follow-up of the material with the homeroom group, but also it is applied in as many recitation divisions as it is effective.

There is a sincere effort to put as much as possible of the planning and delivering of these broadcasts into the pupils' hands. Occasionally they look forward to the few times when they have and may continue to put their material over an honest-to-goodness commercial "mike" for the folks at school and home.

The following children are introduced to the reader as they appear before the microphone with their script:

School News by Clara S.

Good morning everybody! This is the weekly broadcast coming to you over the F. A. Day network.

Here is the school news!

We want to welcome back the pupils who have been absent from school because of illness and also the staff. This is the first time in several weeks that our attendance record has come back anywhere near normal.

We have been having marvelous days to plan vigorous hikes. Mr. B. urges all the boys and girls to get out in the sunshine while we have it. His suggestion is to substitute roller skates for ice skates. How about it?

The student patrol and student council have just had some especially good news! They have been offered the opportunity to go into the Boston Garden February 4 and see a hockey match under the management of the Boston Bruins. Through the kindness of Mr. Ross, we have been donated a block of 100 seats. It certainly is great to be a member of the council or patrol with this and the Provincetown trip to look forward to.

This is a good time to stop and ask ourselves, Are we doing all we can to help the school? We sometimes become lax in the middle of the year.

City news as reported by Frederic F.

Since November first when the city took over the running of the school cafeterias in Newton, even though they have tried to run them on a no-profit basis, a profit of \$2,000 has been accumulated. In order to make up for this profit, in the future all bread will have 15 per cent more butter on it than formerly, and with the hot dish there will be an extra vegetable at no extra cost.

On Monday, January 16, Mayor Weeks submitted the city budget for 1933 to the Board of Aldermen. The budget is nearly half a million dollars less than in the preceding year.

State news as reported by Margaret C.

A policy of rigid economy combined with salary reductions for all State employees, the elimination of certain State divisions, and the transfer of \$8,000,000 from the highway fund to the general revenue account will permit the Commonwealth to balance its budget this year with the imposition of a State tax of \$8,750,000. Governor Ely told the legislature yesterday in his annual budget message. Is this a way out of the depression or another blind alley?

National news as reported by Barbara E.

The President-elect, after his visit with Senator George Norris to the Muscle Shoals power plant, promised that the Shoals will no longer be idle. The Governor intends to let the people own, operate, and profit by the plant in connection with agriculture, industry, forestry, and flood control, in addition to power development. The people of Nebraska should never forget this fight by Senator Norris for public control and use of its own property at Muscle Shoals.

A new twentieth amendment has been added to our constitution, Missouri being the thirty-sixth State. It is known as the Lame Duck Amendment.

William W.'s report

Great Britain yesterday accepted President-elect Roosevelt's terms for discussion of its war debt but made no reservation against deciding what

questions will be considered by the world economic conference until there is a general meeting of all nations to be represented there.

In Paris, American Ambassador Edge sought to ascertain the French Government's intentions on war-debt payment, but Premier Paul-Boncour avoided indicating his course. There were authoritative intimations that France wished to wait and see what would happen to the Anglo-American talk.

"Did you know?" as reported by Aldridge H. and William K.

That about \$1,000,000 is spent daily to feed the cherished household pets of 20 million American families?

That nearly 40,000,000 board feet of lumber are used annually to make lead pencils for American consumption?

That a banyan tree in India has been known to shelter 7,000 men? The circumference of its spread of branches is 3,000 feet?

The average life of a dollar bill is 9 months?

That in the ages men have eaten certain parts of human beings and animals to obtain the knowledge they retained? However, the Tartars carried this idea further by eating books?

Radio answer to last week's question by Jack A.

Capitalism is the economic organization of society in the interests of those who control capital or wealth. It allows and protects private profit. The natural resources of a country, such as the land, minerals, water power, forests, oil, and all basic economic activities, are operated for private profit and controlled by a few individuals. Under this system, property is more important than people; the strong exploit the weak and dividends are considered more important than wages.

The following was given by William K.

Here are some questions found in the question box. What does the W stand for before the letters of a radio station? W and K stand for United States, while C for Canada, N for Mexico, etc. Either 1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8 after the W or K mean the section of the country. Here it would be 1 such as W1KAU. Letters like WEE1 or WNAC are obtained through special permission. Just where is the Hoover Dam located? The Hoover Dam is located on the Colorado River about 85 miles from the El Tovar Hotel on the south rim of Grand Canyon. By the Colorado River it would be 185. What do they do with the money taken in from basketball games? It is placed in the general fund.

The question for this week is "What is Socialism?" I will repeat. Signing off until next week. So long.

The Merritt Business School

R. E. Rutledge

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Here is a real school that tackles its problem of education without bothering about the usual frills. Mr. Rutledge is the principal. Merritt is a public school in Oakland, California.*

F. E. L.

THE Merritt Business School was founded in August 1929 with the express purpose of providing intensive training for entrance to business occupations of all types justified by the opportunities for employment in the community. It also was to provide continuation education on all levels of business desired by persons engaged in commercial occupations. Formerly a compulsory continuation school, Merritt has rapidly become an adult school, as the following data indicate:

1. For the current semester up to February 15, 1,568 students have been enrolled in the day school.
2. The number of women enrolled is almost four times the number of men.
3. The proportion of students with college training is increasing. The number of college graduates exceeds the number of compulsory continuation students. The compulsory group constitutes 4.2 per cent of the school population; the college-graduate group, 4.8 per cent.

From the beginning, the school has been free to experiment with various types of curriculum, coördination, counseling, and administration. An attempt has been made to apply proved principles of vocational education as developed in the trade and industrial field insofar as applicable to commercial education.

A continuous survey of commercial occupations in the Bay Region is carried on. Job analyses are made of the duties of workers in various organizations. Summaries of the survey findings are placed in the hands of each faculty member at frequent intervals. Course organization and content are changed whenever new data are found to warrant

changes. Counseling is made significant because advice is based upon up-to-date facts.

Based upon the findings from a survey of 186 firms with 3,462 employees, the following facts seem significant:

1. There is an increasing demand for workers who are high-school graduates, eighteen years of age or over.
2. The employer requires additional training in commercial work beyond the regular high-school commercial course.
3. The office worker of today must be trained in a variety of skills. In a study of 165 stenographic jobs, 107 duties were involved; in 106 book-keeping jobs, 117 duties. The ten most frequently reported duties of stenographers are: (165 cases studied, listed in order of frequency)

Dictation and transcription	155
Filing	76
Operate dictaphone or ediphone	31
Type various reports	28
General clerical duties	26
Operate P. B. X.	23
Cut stencils (mimeograph)	19
Operate mimeograph	14
Compose own letters	9
Operate calculating machine	9

Based upon studies of present requirements of business, students are advised that:

1. Work experience is a necessary part of preparation for success.
2. One should acquire all possible general education before taking up skill training.
3. Prolonged training before and after entrance to an occupation is essential to holding a job and gaining promotion in these times.

New courses developed as a result of these surveys include personal development, applied psychology, records and reports, and business vocabulary and spelling. Personal development and applied psychology are designed to meet the business man's demands that the workers possess poise and good taste and that they be conscious of their influence upon the public with whom they come in contact.

While many students take something of every subject offered in the school during their stay, each is urged to carry only one major at a given time. Minor subjects for one major may become majors if special interest develops. Examples are machine calculation, filing, stencil cutting, machine operation, and dictating machines.

Students may enter at any time except in beginning shorthand; in this field new classes are formed twice each semester. Leaves of absence are granted at any time, but students absent three days without leave are dropped from membership and can be re-admitted only by special application showing cause for deserving special consideration. No other attempt is made to enforce attendance, though frequent cutting of any class is considered as evidence of lack of interest and the student is requested to drop the subject.

Achievement tests are given frequently and the students are shown the distributions of scores so that they may judge their own progress. No reports are made to parents or students, no course credits are offered, and no diploma is issued. Any person or student may apply for a certificate of proficiency in any skill, and upon passing a performance test be given a Merritt Certificate of Ability in the skill. This testing service is used by outside public placement agencies and by some personnel directors in rating applicants.

All placement service for commercial occupations for the school system has been centralized at Merritt. High-school commercial graduates may register for employment without enrolling in the school, though most of them now expect to continue their training until employed.

Counseling is highly developed. Each student has a faculty adviser and also has the benefit of the advice of a special counselor in all program changes. Health counseling is offered by the school health service, students being able to make appointments with a physician at any time. Each applicant for

employment is strongly urged to have a physical examination, which is available without cost.

Follow-ups are made of each student entering employment at frequent intervals until he is orientated on the job. The contacts thus made reveal weaknesses in our training when they exist and form the basis of a friendly relationship between the school and the employing firm.

Advanced students are given actual office experience without pay in school and welfare-organization offices. In addition, seventy half-time-paid junior clerkships are available in the offices of the schools throughout the city. These positions are open only to Merritt students and are filled by competitive examination.

The office-experience department of the school together with the duplicating department handle a tremendous volume of production work for the various schools, board of education offices, and the fifty-three Community Chest agencies. No paid work is accepted.

Needless to say, every faculty member is constantly engaged in curriculum construction. Job sheets, projects, practice materials, and handbooks are always in the process of construction. For example, we are just completing originals or revisions in the following fields:

1. Budgets for office records and reports
2. Job sheets for multigraphing
3. Text and testing units in filing
4. Instructional manual in dictaphone and ediphone
5. Handbook on use of the telephone

Progress has been made in the direction of tying up community efforts in business education to Merritt Business School as a center. For example, the following groups meet under school sponsorship in the school plant: Credit Men's Lecture course, Banking Institute classes, and an insurance-training group.

A sincere attempt is made to conduct the school on the basis of freedom for each stu-

dent. Some of our procedures and policies are:

- No rules and regulations
- No required curricula
- No pressure for attendance when not interested
- No semester credits
- Pupils free to change from one instructor or adviser to another whenever they wish
- The primary program of the school is guidance and placement
- Athletic contests are with groups of employed workers rather than schools. Such association increases placement and trains for adult recreation
- Work of any honorable kind takes precedence over attendance
- The honor roll posted in the most conspicuous spot

on the bulletin board is the daily list of those who have secured employment

Assemblies are infrequent and when held are definitely vocational. Personnel directors are invited to lecture on elements of success; fashion shows are held at the opening of each season featuring inexpensive yet attractive clothing appropriate for business

That these principles are sound we believe is evidenced by the business-like atmosphere, the dignity and poise of the students, and best of all the hopefulness manifest everywhere—over 1,000 temporary and permanent placements since August 1933 and each student feeling that today may be his day of opportunity.

Take What He Gives

"I don't like Shakespere," he flung back at me.

Sword-like, the challenge found my heart,—
Arrogant, foolish, crude!

My Shakespere!

I saw the low-ceiled birth-room,
With the names, in tribute scrawled;
And passing by, I heard,
The slow procession of man-kind.
I saw the garden, where his flowers bloom,
In fragrant eulogy;
The slender spire of Stratford Church,
Above the brooding Avon, where he sleeps.

And living always in the hearts of men,
I saw the creatures which his fancy bred,—
Faithful Cordelia, dying of her love,
Portia, serene in her integrity,
Hamlet, the Prince, baffled by life's cruel jest,
And dark Macbeth, lost in his darker deeds.

...

"Tomorrow, and tomorrow and tomorrow!"
Far-stretching line of blessing or of bane.
And so I said,—

"No matter,—take what he gives you now,
Ere the bright moments pass."

RACHEL L. DITHRIDGE

Latin Lives and Serves

Kathryn Ormiston Lundy

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Is Latin a dead language? Is its usefulness in junior high schools a dead issue? Kathryn Lundy of the West Junior High School of Binghamton, New York, evidently feels that Latin still lives and can be made to serve more than one good purpose in the lives of boys and girls.* A. D. W.

TEMPORA MUTANTUR ET NOS IN ILLIS MUTAMUR. What could be more true than the thought expressed by those words in regard to teaching the language in which they are written.

Our objective in teaching first-year Latin is of course—as it has always been—to build a firm and sure foundation for the other years of Latin, however many they may be. One goes to the seashore or takes an ocean voyage because he needs the invigoration of the salt air. One whose lungs are weak finds benefit through breathing air from fragrant pines. And yet one gets the same benefit—yes even much greater benefit—if his time is occupied pleasantly while these curative agencies are at work. And so in West Junior we are making the study of first-year Latin pleasant and profitable at the same time that we are building our foundation.

We would correlate the study of Latin with that of every other subject studied by the pupil. We would in fact correlate the study of Latin as far as possible with every other interest the pupil has.

CORRELATION WITH ENGLISH

Such gratifying reactions came from both teachers and pupils as a result of a very definitely planned program to correlate English and Latin, that we who planned the procedure wondered why we had not done it before. It so happened that we of the Latin department found ourselves often attempting to teach topics like "infinitives" and "relative pronouns" to pupils who had little

knowledge of their use in English. The result was disheartening and led to conference with the chairman of our English department whose hearty coöperation made possible a definite scheme whereby the topics of English grammar which had to be taught at some time during the ninth-grade work were taught at least a week before they were met in the Latin classes. I shall never forget the smiles of understanding and comments of appreciation which came from the first group which studied Latin relative pronouns approximately a week after they had been thoroughly drilled in their use in the English classes. The pupils were dealing with a subject they understood and could thus attack intelligently in Latin. They met and mastered a difficult topic easily and were gratified by the knowledge that the work done in one subject really had a very definite value in another. We found it of great value in this correlation to agree upon the phraseology we used in explaining certain topics. For instance, in teaching the complementary infinitive I always say "this is exactly the same use which in your English class you call an infinitive phrase used as object of the verb." The English teacher says "Your Latin teacher will call this a complementary infinitive." In that way we avoid certain doubts which might otherwise arise.

Again the coöperation of the English teachers in the matter of composition work resulted in a list of desirable topics from which the Latin student might select one required for collateral reading in the Latin course. The reference work necessary before writing such compositions met the requirement for the Latin; the composition work was judged, criticized, and corrected to the satisfaction of the English teacher; while the finished product furnished an invaluable and well-nigh inexhaustible source of material

for our department paper. The English teachers stressed emphatically the fact that only the most excellent compositions both from the point of view of accurate subject matter and of literary expression would be selected for publication. The idea had a strong appeal; the pupils had an added incentive to exert their best effort; and the results for both the English and Latin departments were most gratifying.

CORRELATION WITH WOODSHOP

The correlation of Latin with our woodshop has been through the construction of projects which have required the guidance of instructors and the help of boys trained in shopwork combined with the data furnished by the boys of the Latin department who were interested in the construction of a definite project in wood. We have had in our school several models which were made in this way: a Roman house, a Roman camp, a peristyle, and several working models of military equipment including a ballista, a catapult, and a fire-signal tower.

CORRELATION WITH HOMEMAKING

The homemaking department has aided in planning, cutting, and making all of the costumes that we have used in our various programs. Through this correlation the girls of the Latin department have had some guidance in sewing and the homemaking girls have gained some familiarity with the mode of ancient dress.

CORRELATION WITH SCIENCE

In the study of biology a pupil meets so many words of Latin derivation that it seemed wise to concentrate in Latin class on a list of words which he would meet in biology during the term. One of our instructors who realized how much opportunity there was for a valuable correlation made an alphabetical list of the most important words of Latin derivation occurring in each term of the biology course. The words were then tabulated as follows:

Biological term	Latin derivation and meaning	Biological meaning
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A mimeographed list of these words was given to each pupil in the Latin classes, all of whom are biology students. Early in the term we spent two class periods pronouncing, discussing, and studying the fifty words required in the first term's work. The result was a definite understanding of these words as they occurred in the biology course and a surprisingly large number of Latin words learned without any definite request that they be memorized. Naturally the Latin student enjoyed recognizing these words as they occurred and felt a justifiable pride and genuine satisfaction in the result of this correlation.

CORRELATION WITH ART

The work of the art department has been brought into close correlation with our Latin in many ways, the most striking of which has been the planning of suitable decorations for a Latin room. The first step in this correlation resulted in a beautiful picture which we call "Tarquin and the Sibyl." This picture, painted by an eighth-grade boy who was scheduled to take Latin, was first displayed at our birthday assembly program. It now holds a very conspicuous place in our classroom and marks the first of a series of pictures, made by our own pupils, which eventually will adorn our walls.

This correlation with art has been evidenced on several occasions when very interesting and instructive programs have been given by various members of the Latin classes. A very talented boy has drawn a series of pictures to illustrate an assigned story and the members of the class have told the story in Latin and indicated its action by the use of the pointer. While it has always been my plan to have some pupils especially prepared for such a program, it is very gratifying to see what excellent results can be obtained from pupils who had no thought of being called on for such a talk. The pupils enjoy these illustrated talks very much and

take great pride in doing them well. On the occasion of one of these illustrated talks a mother came to me after the class and said, "It is very easy for me to understand now why my son is so crazy about his Latin. I am sure that if I had had an opportunity to study it in such an interesting way I would have found it a joy too."

And so we would not teach the theory that Latin will help later on in English, but we will let it help as they go along. We will not teach the theory that Latin will help by motivation woodshop and homemaking but they will discover this in their classwork. They will discover themselves that Latin helps in the study of science; that art and music are motivated by Latin. At the same time they will see how in turn all these subjects contribute to their Latin lessons.

The keynote of success is genuine interest in whatever one attempts, and it is by stimulating interest that we have more pupils enrolled in our Latin department at this time than we have ever had before. This interest has been cultivated by every conceivable sort of project and device which might chance to make an appeal to the student. One of our most valuable projects is the making of what we choose to call our "dictionary." This has proved most effective in stimulating pupils to master the required word list prescribed by our State syllabus. The procedure I shall describe in detail. The day the project was launched I had on the board the nominative singular of the first declension nouns in the required list. The pupils were instructed to copy these words in a single column. Then I asked every pupil to find the word *agricola* in the vocabulary of his textbook and to study its vocabulary forms and meaning until he felt sure that he could write it without having to consult the vocabulary again. As soon as a pupil had learned the word he was instructed to start an "A" page in the Latin-English section of his dictionary. For the first word on that page he wrote "agricola, agricolae, M., farmer," and was asked to say the vocabu-

lary forms at least twice before proceeding to the English-Latin step. Here he started an "F" page and classified the first word "farmer—agricola, agricolae, M." If the pupil follows one word through to the end as indicated he is certain to know that word when he has finished. With a word having several important meanings, we classify it in the English-Latin section just as many times as it has different meanings. After the pupil has put the assigned list of words in the dictionary, if he followed each step exactly as instructed to do, he is ready to test himself to see how well he has studied. To make this test he takes the original list of words which he copied from the board, and, without any help, completes the vocabulary forms with their meaning and then checks the list in red pencil and makes corrections exactly as if the teacher had checked the test. This shows him what he can do when he has the Latin word given. Next he is asked to make a jumbled list of all the English words using every possible meaning given in the textbook. From this jumbled list he takes a test which he again checks and corrects for himself. Emphasis on the fact that no two people in the world think exactly alike leads them to see the necessity of doing independent work. The mastery tests given in class and checked by the teacher proved the efficacy of the plan. I can hear the comments of some of my readers who will feel that it is a tremendous task to expect of beginning pupils. My only reply is "try it for yourself and see the result." The first day it takes a whole period to get the project underway with but few people who really feel that they understand the procedure. But the idea appeals to them and they keep coming back to ask about some item which was not quite clear. The next day most of the class are working intelligently and happily at a task where they can proceed at their own speed and can definitely measure their own progress every step of the way. It has been very interesting to me to note the keen interest and great pride which some of

the apparently indifferent boys have taken in this project.

How to treat the question of collateral reading was a problem until a trial proved the value of a classroom program dealing with certain phases of Roman life. One class period devoted to a program of Roman hero stories, with an attractive souvenir program containing a pertinent sentence or two regarding each hero, accomplished better results than any other method I have used. Why? Because the interest of the pupil was aroused by these carefully prepared talks and they were stimulated with a desire to read more because they wanted to do so not because they were directed to do so.

The same "program" procedure is followed in other topics necessary for a comprehensive background. This gives the pupil a feeling of accomplishing the work in an interesting fashion and proves an incentive to many to read extensively on these topics.

One of the most potent factors in stimulating keen active interest comes through a well-supervised Latin club. Our West Junior club, The Forum, revealed undreamed of talent which might never have evidenced itself in the classroom. In this club we wrote plays, dramatized stories, made and solved crossword puzzles and conundrums, played games designed to teach vocabulary and facts of Roman life, had guest speakers, and did many interesting things to vitalize the work which time would not permit of doing during the class period. The membership of our club was limited to forty but the writer, until being appointed club director, had a Latin club of forty-five to fifty members.

We further kindle interest through such projects as the presentation of a Latin operetta, an original play, *The Triumph*, written by a ninth-grade girl in her first term, a

Roman banquet, and special programs whenever there is an opportunity for one. Just before the Christmas vacation we always have a Saturnalia program. On Valentine's Day we have a program to acquaint pupils with some of the famous love stories of mythology and to trace the custom of celebrating St. Valentine's Day to its Roman origin. Near Mother's Day we celebrate the Matronalia. For such occasions we always have an attractive souvenir program which I believe is a very essential item.

One of our biggest projects and one of the most valuable is the publication of our department paper called the *Spectator*. Here we find vent for the originality of our students, incentive to contribute stories in Latin or English, crossword puzzles, jokes, and genuine interest on the part of all Latin students in the finished product where they may see their own names or those of their friends as authors of contributions to the paper. It has been our aim to have a very special issue of the *Spectator* once each term. The Christmas and June numbers have been hand decorated at a great expenditure of time and energy, but the intense interest shown in their preparation and the enthusiastic reception accorded them by our friends have made us feel amply repaid for the extra time required to accomplish this. The Latin paper means a great amount of time on the part of the faculty adviser in work with the staff, but in West Junior we feel that it is a project of inestimable worth.

All these things add interest and make the study of Latin a delight to many a student. To hear a first-year Latin pupil say that he likes his Latin best of all his work pays one for all effort spent to make the background and the correlation of work such as to call forth this sort of expression.

History Begins at Home

Merle Lamborn

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The study of history should contribute to the development of understanding of current social and economic problems, and to the growth of desirable civic attitudes. The article that follows is a concrete and straightforward description of Miss Merle Lamborn's method of using history for this purpose. Miss Lamborn teaches in the Haven School in Evanston, Illinois.*

A. D. W.

LAST YEAR WE decided to substitute a new method of history procedure for one semester in an 8A class, the students of which for the most part were of a high average of intelligence. In place of the chronological and traditional treatment, we adopted the idea that "the true starting point of history is always some present-day situation." At that time Mr. Hoover was sending his last message to Congress, and each student was asked to bring a copy of this message to class. We went through it in a couple of laboratory periods, and after a discussion they decided one of the most outstanding topics mentioned in the speech was the ever-present depression. We determined to go back along historic lanes and locate all the depressions (or panics as the class found they had previously been called) from which the country had suffered; familiarize ourselves with the periods in which they occurred, the causes, the parties in power, etc.

The class found that the first war in which we engaged as a nation, the War of 1812, was followed by the panic of 1818-1819. They were surprised to find that even in those early times there had been "over-expansion," "overproduction," "wild speculation," conditions which they had so long connected with our own times.

They took the troublous periods of 1837, 1857, 1873, 1893, 1907, 1921-1922, 1929-1932, and found a definite similarity of con-

ditions. For instance, it appeared that all wars are followed by a period of industrial and financial instability; that new inventions cause unwise expansion, bringing a flood of goods that cannot readily be absorbed; that the panics seem to follow a definite cycle, practically every twenty years, or every generation; that orgies of speculation have been indulged in by every generation, in an effort to "get rich quick," followed often by a market "crash"; that frequently gold has been "hoarded"; and, most surprising of all to them, the class found that depressions had come about under Democratic régimes as well as under Republican and that the party in power had always been blamed for the hard times.

They were tremendously interested in the comparisons and contrasts and were keen to discuss ways and means of preventing such conditions arising when they themselves should be grown and part of the business world. How could prevention be accomplished? Their answers showed the influence of the trend of thought of their day. For one thing, war should be abolished. Then, too, in good times, when taxes can be paid promptly, the Government should lay aside a portion for "rainy days." The pupils recognized this as parallel to their family financial planning. In addition the citizens should choose honest government officials. Since we are close to Chicago, they had heard a great deal of the Sanitary Board scandal, and knew the graft obtained by that group had helped to bring difficult times to the city. As a class they condemned speculation, because they knew from the experience of relatives and friends ruined by the market crash of 1929 that the small speculator stands very little chance when pitted against the man with money.

Finally, it was interesting to notice their

change of attitude towards Mr. Hoover and the Republican administration. They wondered why so many people, especially Democrats, blamed the Republican president and officials, when, as they said, depressions seemed to come regardless of the party in power, and several had come under the Democrats themselves. A greater tolerance developed towards the individuals in high places, and a greater determination to look more deeply for causes.

Some one suggested that unemployment was greater because of the many immigrants living in the country, so they asked to look up the question of immigration. Going back to colonial times, they studied the many streams which had mingled to make the United States. They saw how the newcomers settled at first as definite groups, how the "melting pot" started and continued its work of fusion. They noted the change around 1890 from the Nordic group to the Mediterranean group and understood why the stringent law of 1924 was drawn. They saw that unemployment would be greater today without it.

Since most of the class were several generations removed from their European forefathers, there was a certain feeling of superiority and condescension towards foreigners. Then some one suggested that their own ancestors had been foreigners when they first came to America. After all, our country had been made by the foreign born. They also thought that so many different peoples might have brought in many different abilities and gifts. So they divided into committees, each taking a certain line of development, cultural, political, scientific, to see what contributions to American life in that particular phase of endeavor had been made by foreign-born citizens.

Some girls had this as a preface to their report: "Our country owes much of its stability to the achievements of our citizens of foreign birth and to the ideals formed by them, all helping to make the United States one of the leading countries of the world."

Then they undertook to show how the educational life of America had been enriched by the ideals, the thoughts, and the lives of numerous foreigners from many countries.

A group of boys wrote: "In this cosmopolitan nation, many foreign-born men have become leaders. We have undertaken this project to show you some of these citizens who have contributed to the field of science. We owe much to these men who gave up their native countries to become Americans." I think they were amazed to find men whose names they knew well, Alexander G. Bell, Steinmetz, Nikola Tesla, had been born abroad. But their achievements had gone to the glory of the United States. So it was in literature with Edward Bok, Ernest Thompson Seton, James Pulitzer, Bliss Carman; in art with St. Gaudens; in music with Percy Grainger, Heifetz, Schumann-Heink, Damsch, Theodore Thomas, Frederick Stock, etc. In place of the feeling of superiority with which they started came a glow of pride to think these foreigners had given of themselves and their gifts to help the United States find a more glorious "place in the sun," rather than their native lands.

Then this question arose. Since people from every country on earth come over here, live in harmony, back the same government, cherish the same ideals, cheer the same flag, why is it that larger groups of these same peoples, in Europe, are so bitter towards each other? Thus came about the discussion of ethnological mixtures, the changing frontiers in Europe through the ages by means of conquest, with the subsequent holding of minority groups through force and the engendering of hatred. This led up to the subject of what our foreign relations should be with the nations of Europe.

Again we went back to early times. We took Washington's "Farewell Address" with its warning to avoid "entangling alliances," Monroe's doctrine with its definite challenge to Europe to keep out of our affairs in return for our agreement to do likewise. Natu-

rally, some one asked if we did not interfere when we went into the World War. This was the chance to see how the many changes, along inventive, scientific, industrial, economic, and political lines, had forced a change in our attitude towards foreign relationships. Europe and America are closer today than New York and Philadelphia were in Washington's time. From their studies the year before of "Nations as Neighbors," they had gained an idea of the interdependence of nations, especially in the commodities that make living more pleasant. Now they gained a broader concept. They saw that the United States was bound to feel a repercussion from unsettled conditions in any part of the world; that our own monetary, economic, and industrial system touch other systems so closely, a disturbance any place is bound to unsettle our own to some extent.

Of course, they knew there was nothing more unsettling than war. The aftermath of the World War had influenced and was continuing to influence even their lives. As a direct result of the talks we had had about foreign relations, the topic of disarmament came up. They were proud to think

the United States called the conference at Washington in 1921 and was ready and willing to make sacrifices to lead the way. The Kellogg Peace Pact was looked up, as well as the London Conference and the many other attempts at limitation where the United States was merely an unofficial observer, but an extremely interested observer.

Many times topics were assigned to committees who reported. Sometimes the subject matter was looked up by the whole group. We had many class talks, quite informal ones, each adding the information he had gained, or feeling quite free to express his opinion. Sometimes the group wrote a summary of the topic as a whole, endeavoring to show a logical growth from early times to our own. Sometimes each committee did merely its division of a related group of topics, as for instance musicians, authors, etc., among the foreign born.

The class showed a marked enthusiasm for the procedure and we felt they made a definite gain in breadth of view. One feels that the plan should be used either with a group that has a good background or with one that has the ability to look up, sift out, and easily correlate a great deal of material.

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On Apprend à Lire

Carl L. Cassel

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Carefully planned classroom procedures that lead to demonstrable success on the part of pupils are always of interest to teachers. Here is an article from the senior high school of Reading, Pennsylvania, by Carl L. Cassel, vice principal, describing a procedure designed to accomplish a specific objective in the teaching of French.*

A. D. W.

FOR SOME YEARS the teachers of the modern foreign languages in our school have been asking themselves whether their students show any evidence of a reading adaptation in their subject. For the 15 or 20 per cent that take the subject three years, the answer is generally in the affirmative; for the great majority who pursue the study of the language only two years, the answer is, unfortunately, decidedly in the negative. The teachers are also agreed that unless the reading adaptation can be attained by most of those pursuing the subject for two years, it can hardly justify its place in the curriculum except to a small group of college-preparatory students who may attain a reading ability by continuing the study of a foreign language in college.

Like most schools, we are using the modified direct method—a large amount of oral work during the early stages, varied grammar drills, written reproduction of the oral work, with reading gradually assuming the important place in the second year. The basic reading in the second year is intensive and covers several hundred pages. Extensive reading is begun in the first year in "rapid" sections and is provided for on the worksheets of the second and third years. The scores of standard tests and the records of our students in college compare very favorably with those of other schools. Regardless of this achievement, our teachers feel that the fourfold aim of reading, understanding, speaking, and writing are hardly attainable in two or even three years. They hold this

point of view in spite of the most generous interpretation of this fourfold aim which really requires an attainment of only reading, and is satisfied with just the foundation work for a later acquisition of abilities in understanding, speaking, and writing. The classes are too large; the time is too short. Like language teachers everywhere, our teachers have often wondered whether the objective of reading cannot be attained more quickly, whether too much time is being devoted to grammar drills, to oral and written work, and whether the active or "recall" work in grammar cannot be materially reduced in developing reading, since reading involves a passive vocabulary and only a "recognition" knowledge of grammar.

The appearance of Michael West's *Language in Education* in 1929 and the various volumes of the Modern Foreign Language Study (1927-1931) proved to be real challenges. These publications gave us definite and expert opinions and encouraged experimentation along different lines. The publication of the new French series by the University of Chicago, under the direction of Miss Eddy, furnished us with a real opportunity for experimentation. The following statements from West's book impressed us very much and seemed true beyond any doubt:

A boy beginning to speak a foreign language has to cope with pronunciation, accident, syntax, idiom; and, in beginning to write, he has to cope with the formation of the letters and with spelling. In reading he has only to understand the idioms and grammar, a much easier task than combining them. Thus by giving reading priority, we reduce by three fourths the beginner's difficulties.

The direct-method boy is kept back in his reading by the pace at which he can learn to speak, and so, since the rate of learning to speak is very slow, he gets practically no reading practice at all.

With this background, an experimental class was started in French in September

1931. The New Series of the University of Chicago was used as textbooks. There were sixteen tenth-grade students in the class whose I.Q.s ranged from 93 to 117—median 104. For evident reasons, no student who intended to take the College Board Examinations was enrolled in the class. In June 1933, after two years, the enrollment of the class was twelve. Of the four that dropped out of the course, two had I.Q.s of less than 100, and one moved out of the city.

Everything in the class procedure is aimed at developing the ability to read with direct comprehension. A visit to this special class would disclose a technique of the following sort: The teacher first asks for a brief résumé in English of the preceding story. This step is especially important if the new selection is a continuation of the old one. Then there follows a discussion of any *réalien* bearing upon the story. Here the teacher is careful to draw out as much information as possible from the students before supplementing it with any information of her own. The teacher then reads aloud in French to the end of a thought unit. The students read silently. The students then look up from their texts, and some one in the group is called upon to tell in English the content of the story to this point. Any important omissions are brought out by the teacher's questions. This plan is continued to the end of the story. Books are kept open through the entire procedure. In other classes, by way of contrast, books are kept closed so that the presentation may be made through the ears before it is made to the eyes. When direct comprehension of the printed pages is the primary aim, such a procedure would not be economical.

As the pupils become more advanced the procedure is speeded up considerably. Thought units are lengthened. Pupils find on their own initiative, by silent reading, the answers to the questions at the end of the reading selections. A time check is kept, and pupils raise their hands when they have finished. An oral discussion follows.

After the reading is completed, the new words and idioms found in the margins are pronounced by the pupils and the meanings given.

The assignment consists of answers in French to a series of questions on the content which are printed at the end of the story. The answers to these questions should prepare the pupils for a content test the next day on the assigned story. This test is of the objective type—true-false, multiple response, completion—incorporating the vocabulary and idioms of the story.

If the visitor should happen to be in the class on a day when grammar work was being done, he would be impressed with the different approach to this phase of language study. There would be no reciting of paradigms. No effort to get beyond the "recognition" stage would be in evidence. Each pupil has a workbook to aid him. In this book are series of exercises by which he can check his accuracy in recognition. This book also contains excellent drills in pronunciation and, as a result of this constant practice in pronunciation, these students are superior in this phase of the work to those in our regular classes. It is at this point in the work where, at times, confusion arose in the mind of the teacher. It is not easy for a teacher who does most of her work by the modified direct method to get away from the recitation of paradigms and various kinds of recall exercises. Experience, however, is showing us the way by removing the feeling of total lack of learning just because a form cannot be recalled.

A great interest was shown by language teachers and others in the progress of this little group. At various intervals its progress was compared with that of the regular classes. The results of all comparative tests were most favorable. In June 1932, after one year of study, it scored as high in a series of reading tests as a superior group that had studied French for two years. This group also scored considerably above the national norm in the vocabulary and silent

reading sections of the American Council French Tests. In grammar, the median score was a few points below the national norm, but such a result was to be expected, for no recall of grammatical forms was insisted upon.

During the second year, this group completed all the books of the series totaling nearly 1,000 pages. These books contain a vocabulary of 1,850 words exclusive of words so like English as to be easily recognized. They are developed according to the new frequency lists of the Modern Language Study and in accordance with a definite plan and rate for introducing new words (density) which make them most valuable contributions to the field. That they are a success is proved by the fact that more and more readers of this so-called "West type" are being published by the different book companies. Even before the end of the first semester, these students were clamoring for more reading material; and, consequently, many of the students have read as much as 500 additional pages of French. Their teacher is fully convinced that they find a real joy in reading French, simply because they know how to read. Tests at the end of the second year revealed an ability to comprehend new material far beyond the ability of our third-year students. This group outranked the third-year groups in the vocabulary and comprehension sections of the Columbia Research French Test but were 10 points below the median in grammar.

Seven of the original group elected third-year French and were placed in the same class as students taught by the modified direct method. Their ability to get the meaning from the printed page is clearly superior, but their ability to speak and write is below the average of the group. This seems to indicate that possibly less writing and speak-

ing are necessary for a reading ability than is sometimes supposed to be necessary. It is felt that this weakness will be overcome in part when the new text on *Speaking and Writing French* is added to the series next spring. This book belongs in the second year and is to be used after the reading ability has been fairly well established. The teacher in charge of the class developed some exercises in writing in an attempt to take care of this need, but she now realizes that more work of this type could have been given without retarding the growth in the ability to read.

A new group of thirty students was organized into an experimental class in September 1933. With more experience and the addition of the book on speaking and writing, we are looking forward to even better results. From present indications, it looks as though all our French classes will be taught by the above plan in a year or two. The extension of this procedure to Spanish seems easy. Its extension to German without some modifications, however, is less certain. Expert opinion seems to differ on this point.

If the present trends in education are correctly interpreted by the writer, a great majority of our students will learn of the civilization of peoples across the seas through well-integrated courses in social science. For a small and interested group, however, who are capable of it and whose life's plans require it, the ideal way to learn the life and customs of other people will be through a knowledge of the language itself. To develop a reading adaptation, really worthy of the name, an adaptation which will actually function in their lives should be the hope and ambition of progressive language teachers. Many of us feel that the procedure suggested above is a step in the right direction.

Experimental Classification

C. P. Finger

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The principal of the Frick Junior High School of Oakland, California, reports their plan of classification.*
F. E. L.

ONE OF THE major problems of the junior high school during the past decade has been the classification of pupils into more or less homogeneous groups. Some of the various bases which have been used for classification are mental, social, reading, and chronological ages, I.Q., and even alphabetical arrangement. The objective of any system of classification should be to place the pupil in an environment in which both the individual and group may do the most effective work.

In this school of about 1,500 pupils we have tried many types of classification of the incoming low seventh-grade pupils, including grouping by ability, by accomplishment, by a combination of the two, and also by chronological age. In a school system where there is little if any retardation, this latter method does not present the problem which might be expected. The result is practically a social grouping with a wide spread of ability.

In the ability grouping, pupils of like ability were organized into classes having only slight variations in each group. Of course, conspicuous variants were cared for individually. The ability range of the groups varied from those of highest I.Q. in one section to the lowest in another section, with groups of corresponding ability between the two extremes.

Assuming that such classification did not represent a normal life grouping, we have modified the range of abilities in each group. We take all pupils from 100 I.Q. to the lowest and group them by putting pupils from the same elementary school together in the same class and attempting to make a social classification. We also try to include some measure of accomplishment in the sixth

grade as one other basis for this grouping. In every group are found pupils with I.Q.'s of 80 to 100, but the variation is not enough to produce boredom in the upper reaches nor utter hopelessness at the lower end. Those above 100 I.Q. are grouped similarly, and these groups continue through the high seventh grade.

Towards the end of the high seventh grade, pupils are asked to express themselves as to what they would like to do when they finish school. They are grouped as academic and nonacademic, about three homerooms of forty pupils in each division. Academic pupils must do the work of pupils in the college-preparatory curriculum in the ninth grade. Pupils of low mentality who are unsuited to the academic group become conscious of the difficulty of a college-preparatory curriculum before they are called upon to choose a course in the more highly specialized work of the ninth grade. This plan has cut down failures in the ninth grade, saved time and developed better attitudes towards work. Even at the beginning of the high eighth grade many pupils who have signified their intention of going to college voluntarily change their courses, not from a sense of failure but because they realize that they can accomplish more in another area of learning.

The criticism that pupils do not know what they want at this age is met by the fact that they are asked to choose only between large areas of learning and not any specified occupation. This choice does not preclude the possibility of a change later. When this choice was not made until the ninth grade, pupils not adapted to the academic work entered senior high school with uncertainty as to the course to be pursued, whereas, in the above plan, most of the uncertainty is over in the ninth grade and better orientation is possible.

Economies in the High-School Program

H. T. Steeper

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Whether we like it or not the budgets of high schools are being cut. H. T. Steeper reports how they have tackled this problem in Des Moines. If you have better suggestions, send them in!*

F. E. L.

IT HAS LONG BEEN the policy of the Des Moines school management to try to give the city as business-like and economical an administration as possible, saving costs wherever consonant with good school practices. As a result of the recent general decline in real-estate values, and the widespread depression, together with some sweepingly drastic State legislation as a part of a State-wide tax-reduction program, we have been forced to adopt every possible method of reducing school costs. As a part of this program of cost reduction the following adjustments and plans have been put into operation in North High School.

1. The lunchroom is used as a library-study hall, except during lunch periods. This released a large study hall which was remodeled into two classrooms, one a large music room and the other a little theater. This arrangement makes possible the use of the lunchroom from 7.30 in the morning until 4.00 in the afternoon.

2. The student council at this suggestion took over the control and attendance records of the library-study hall under the supervision of the librarian. The library stacks were moved to a classroom adjoining the lunchroom, and windows and a door were cut in the wall between the two rooms, thus making the checking of books by student assistants convenient, and the supervision of the librarian easy.

3. The seating capacity in the classrooms was increased to forty and in some cases to seventy-five, thus permitting larger class sizes. The Typing I room was increased to sixty-six and the Typing II room to fifty-

seven. This eliminated the need for one teacher.

4. The school was put on a five-period day, sixty-five-minute periods of directed study. All shop, mechanical drawing, home economics, art, typing, bookkeeping, and science teachers thus handle one more period a day than under the old laboratory double-period scheme, or twenty-five per cent more students per teacher. This eliminated three teachers.

5. Physical-education requirements were cut from two and a half periods per student to one period per student, the minimum required by law. This released two teachers, and a study-hall clerk at a low salary of \$950.00 was added to care for the extra study-hall people thus released.

6. The two vice principals each teach half time, thus saving the cost of one teacher.

7. Twelve units are required for graduation from the senior high school, and only twelve units are allowed unless the student pays tuition for additional units. This saves teaching cost for extra credits.

8. All athletic coaching costs are borne by the school from the athletic receipts from games instead of being paid by taxation. Coaches are, of course, regular teachers who do their coaching at the close of the school day. The extra coaching time is paid for from athletic funds.

9. Students are assigned in homeroom groups of forty to fifty to the teacher for curriculum guidance and record work. This saves office clerical work. A school of eighteen hundred enrollment is operated with two clerks, as compared with many schools which use three or four clerks. Girls from office-practice classes are assigned each period to assist in the general office, the vice principals' offices, and the nurse's office.

10. Student participation in managing the

extracurricular activities under the direction of the student council through eighteen standing committees, clerical help in the homerooms, and student leadership in classrooms, especially in physical-education work, saves the teachers much time, work, and energy. This plan furnishes many opportunities for training students in leadership and the carrying of responsibilities.

11. Adoption of a student-activity stamp plan for financing all extracurricular activities has made possible the retention of all such activities during these times, and at a very low cost to the student. The activity stamp book covers participation in and admission to the following activities: athletics, school newspaper and senior supplement, sound movies, dramatics, debating, Friday afternoon matinee dances, all-school evening parties, and music contests. The school owns musical instruments worth \$6,000, largely purchased from this fund, two complete sound movie machines worth \$2,600, athletic equipment worth \$3,000, acoustical treatment in the auditorium, library, and office at a cost of \$1,500, and complete stage and lighting equipment in the auditorium and little theater.

Students pay ten cents a week, \$1.90 per term, and receive over ten dollars worth of admissions as computed at regular prices. Fifteen hundred out of 1,800 students and practically all of the faculty are carrying these activity books at the present time. This is the fifth year of using this plan, and the income has increased from \$3,800.00 in the first year to an estimated amount of over \$5,000.00 in this year. The plan also calls for furnishing activity books to any student unable to purchase them. The homeroom teacher or the parent certifies to the need.

12. Music and dramatics have been put entirely on school time for credit towards graduation, thus no time of the music or dramatic teachers is left vacant during school time in order to compensate for that used after school for coaching. All their time counts on the teaching load.

13. Seven per cent of the gross receipts from the lunchroom is turned over to the board of education to pay for gas, lighting, and upkeep of the lunchroom. All help and other costs are taken from the receipts so that there is no cost to the taxpayers for the lunchroom, except general supervision.

14. In addition to the school paper issued each week and paid for entirely by subscriptions and a little advertising, we have some time ago discarded the expensive school annual and substituted twice a year a senior supplement to the last issue of each semester, at a low cost to the school activity fund of about one hundred fifty to one hundred seventy-five dollars. Thus we do not have to ask the merchants to furnish advertising.

15. We double up in certain classes such as advanced Latin, French, Spanish, German, English 7 and 8, Business English 1 and 2, and run certain subjects only one term each year, such as Mathematics 7 and 8, etc. This makes possible larger classes in advanced elective subjects. They run on a par, or about so, with the lower classes and the required work. It saves teaching costs of what would otherwise be expensive classes and sometimes makes the offering of such work possible.

16. Part of our activity-fund money is kept on interest in a savings account for six months at a time and this "interest fund" may be used in connection with purchases for the office which the board of education does not supply through taxation, such items as office rugs, certain office furniture, office equipment, professional magazines circulated through the faculty, and certain professional books for the same purpose.

17. We have had in two high schools in Des Moines double-sized classes in social science and advanced English work under two teachers and given them each an assistant just out of college to grade papers, help with the clerical work of attendance, make-up work, etc. The salary of such assistants was about half that of a regular teacher, thus saving about one half a regular teacher's

salary in each experiment. On the pay of one and one-half teachers we have handled the work of two teachers or 300 to 325 students. The results, as far as grades and students passing are concerned, have been about normal.

18. The junior-high-school program in the city was cut this fall from a six-period per pupil basis to a five-period per pupil basis plus a study period. In this way the number of teachers in the eight junior high schools was cut about thirty.

The senior high schools (four of them) gave up about twenty teachers and the elementary schools about twelve teachers.

In October 1920-1921 the Des Moines schools enrolled in all grades 22,281 children and had a teaching staff of 813.5 in regular teaching positions. In October 1933 there were 30,084 children with 809 teaching positions. In 1920 there were twenty supervisory staff people at the main office; in 1933, eighteen.

19. We print our own high-school diploma which is a four-page book style and includes a photostatic copy of the student's complete scholastic and extracurricular record. Announcements are printed by the board of education and fifteen copies given to each senior.

By the use of all these plans we now handle at North High School 1,800 students with a personnel of fifty, including the office staff, whereas fourteen years ago a high school of the same size in that section of the city employed a personnel of eighty. The teaching load today is about thirty-five students per teacher; in 1920 it was twenty-one. It would not be safe to say that the ends of the school are as well served in all particulars, but the necessity for cutting costs while the high-school enrollment of the city has continually mounted has made drastic adjustments unavoidable. Over this period of fourteen years the school has continually broadened the extracurricular program and increased the personal services to the individual student.

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sibly can is by far the wiser thing to do?

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INOR PUBLISHING COMPANY

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School Law Review

Daniel R. Hodgdon

EDITOR'S NOTE: Questions on matters concerning public-school law will be answered in this department by Dr. Hodgdon. Address your inquiries to him in care of THE CLEARING HOUSE.

F. E. L.

May a parent demand that his child be allowed to be excused from taking any subject in school?

This question has arisen in several outstanding cases. It probably is well settled that a child must take the subjects which are required by statute, but, when the general course of instruction prescribed by a board of education contains courses which the legislature does not require to be studied, the right of the parent to make a selection of the courses which the child shall study in certain cases exceeds the authority of the school board.

Where there is no express statutory authority regarding any particular course or subject, the weight of opinion of the courts seems to be that the school board or superintendent of schools cannot require a pupil to pursue a particular subject against the wishes of his parents. Where the school board has the right to prescribe the course of study to be taken, the pupil, of course, may be denied a diploma until he has pursued satisfactorily the prescribed course of studies. In one case, a father objected to the study of grammar and refused to permit his child to take the course as prescribed in the school because it was not taught in accordance with his ideas of grammar. The child was expelled from the school. The court reinstated the child in the school, saying that the right of the parent to determine what studies his child shall pursue is paramount to that of the school board or teacher. Of course, it must be understood that grammar was not required by statute. In this same case, the court passed upon the right of pupils attending school to take lessons in music, painting, and so forth, from private teachers. This the pupil had a right to do over the objection of the school authorities.

"No pupil attending the school can be compelled to study any prescribed branch against the protest of the parent that the child shall not study such branch, and any rule or regulation that requires the pupil to continue such studies is arbitrary and unreasonable. There is no good reason why the failure of one or more pupils to study one or more prescribed branch should result disastrously to the proper discipline, efficiency, and well-being of the school."¹

Some courts, however, have disagreed with the theory above stated wherever it would appear that the wishes of the parents would have a disintegrating effect and would prevent classification in the school system.²

May a school or school board punish pupils for conduct beyond the school grounds out of school hours?

The general rule in respect to any regulations governing pupils after school hours is that the conduct of the pupil must be such as to be demoralizing to the welfare of the school. Pupils can be forbidden from fighting and using profane language while going to and from school.³

A pupil may be punished for improper or contemptuous language to a teacher after hours on the streets or while standing in his own dooryard because such action would have an immediate tendency to injure the school and to bring the teacher's authority into contempt.⁴

In general, the court has said, "If the effects of the act done out of school hours reach within the schoolroom during school hours and are detrimental to good order and the best interests of the pupils, it is evident that such acts may be forbidden."⁵

Children may be punished for annoying other children on the way home, and a rule that children must go straight home from school is considered reasonable, but no pupil could be punished who violated a rule that he must remain in his home and study from seven to nine in the evening. In this respect the court said, "Certainly a rule of the school, which invades the home, and wrests from the parent his right to control his child around his hearth-stone, is inconsistent with any law that has yet governed the parent in this State. . . . In the home the parental authority is and should be supreme, and it is a misguided zeal that attempts to wrest it from them."⁶

¹ State v. School District No. 1, 31 Neb. 552, 44 N.W. 393; Trustees of Schools v. People, 87 Ill. 303, 29 Am. Rep. 55.

² Kidder v. Chellis, 59 N. H. 473; Sewell v. Board of Education, 29 Ohio State 89.

³ Hutton v. State, 23 Tex. App. 396, 5 S. W. 122, 59 Am. Rep. 776; Deskens v. Gose, 85 Mo. 485, 55 Am. Rep. 387.

⁴ Lander v. Seaver, 32 Vt. 114, 76 Am. Dec. 156.

⁵ Burdick v. Babcock, 31 Iowa 562.

⁶ Hobbs v. Germany, 94 Mississippi 469, 49 S. 515, 22 L. R. A. N. S. 983.

Others Say

Floyd E. Harshman

EDUCATION OF CONSUMER A SCHOOL RESPONSIBILITY

Instruction in "consumership," says Adelaide S. Baylor in the current issue of *School Life*, official organ of the Federal Office of Education, should be a part of every program of instruction in home economics.

Although the teaching of home economics, Miss Baylor explains, has been recognized as a function of the public schools for the last half century, it is only in rare instances that consumer education has been made more than an incidental part of the program.

In her article, "Teaching Buyers Buying," Miss Baylor, who is chief of the economics-education service of the Office of Education, declares that it is just as important for the 28,000,000 women who spend the bulk of the family income in America today to know something about the technique of buying and renting houses, whether it is better under specific conditions and prevailing rates to use gas or electricity in the home, and what types of insurance policies fit particular conditions, as it is for them to know how to cook a meal or repair a garment—the traditional subjects covered in home-economics courses.

This is particularly true under present conditions, it is explained, when reduced incomes add to the problems of the family buyer; and it is the responsibility of the public schools to give the family purchasing agent the information she needs in solving her buying problems.

HANDICRAFT MOVEMENT SPREADING RAPIDLY

"Made in New Hampshire," and "Made in the Southern Highlands," stamped on products from the shops of homecraft workers who have been building up a trade in "handmade," "handwrought," and "handwoven" articles may develop a greater pulling power than the proverbial "Made in Japan," "Made in France," or "Made in Germany" trademarks of the past.

"New partiality on the part of Americans for articles turned out by hand," says G. A. McGarvey in the current issue of *School Life*, "has created a growing demand for handmade furniture, handhammered copper and brass articles, and irons, and other fireplace equipment, handwoven fabrics, and handmade and hand-decorated pottery."

Special attention is directed by Mr. McGarvey to the necessity of providing adequate training and education for prospective homecrafters and for those already engaged in "fireside industries" who desire to improve their technique and to be thoroughly informed regarding the application of the principles of design, form, and color in the construction of handmade articles.

"For several years," he says, "the vocational division of the Office of Education has stressed the need of an organized plan of instruction in the handicraft arts. It is significant also that some of the homecraft leagues or guilds have taken advantage of the opportunities provided by State departments of education which have established classes for training and upgrading workers in this field. In Concord, New Hampshire, a master craftsman holds classes in his shop, where he instructs his neighbors—fellow guildsmen—in the art of carving oddities out of wood. At Andover, a Swedish girl, trained in the art of weaving, goes from center to center training groups of weavers. Pewter workers in Wolfeboro, New Hampshire, receive instruction in their own classroom from an expert silversmith."

The education and training of adult workers for handicraft industries is, in the opinion of the Federal Office of Education, a new problem for educators.

MOTION-PICTURE TASTES

The time seems to be near when the schools will exert an influence on standards of motion-picture production. This desirable end promises to be the outcome of an experiment started two years ago by the National Council of Teachers of English to determine whether the motion-picture tastes of high-school pupils could be improved through the medium of the English class.

The experiment was so successful that at the annual convention of the National Council in Detroit last December the thousand teachers present voted the adoption of the report of William Lewin, Weequahic High School, Newark, chairman of the Photoplay Appreciation Committee, recommending that photoplay instruction be introduced in the schools and that courses of methods in teaching photoplay appreciation be given in schools of education.

One of the significant findings of the Council's study was that pupils in the experimental groups soon formed the habit of seeking the teacher's ad-

vice before seeing a picture. Ordinarily this is the last thing a pupil would think of doing.

Other findings were: (1) Photoplay appreciation can be taught to boys and girls of normal intelligence in grades nine, ten, eleven, and twelve. (2) Pupils under guidance show 85 per cent superiority in reporting examples of films that have influenced their behavior, the chief influence being in the direction of higher ideals. (3) Class instruction excels in developing appreciation of honesty, bravery, devotion, and self-sacrifice among the ideals portrayed by screen characters. (4) Pupils enjoy photoplay discussion so much that it is eager and rapid.

FEDERAL RELIEF FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

Federal relief for public education is needed for such emergency purposes as the following:

1. To open closed schools and prevent other schools from closing or from drastically shortening their terms
2. To prevent drastic retrenchments in educational programs which will seriously lower the quantity and quality of educational opportunity provided the boys and girls of the Nation
3. To provide for the employment at appropriate salaries of qualified teachers who are now unemployed and who are needed in many school systems to carry on essential phases of educational work
4. To provide credit and other financial aid on the security of delinquent property taxes and frozen school funds in closed banks to enable the payment of salaries and other obligations now in arrears
5. To provide Federal funds for the repair and construction of needed school buildings
6. To provide Federal relief funds to assist the States in the maintenance of a foundation program of public education in every community during the period of the emergency.

7. To secure the further liberalization of Federal emergency acts through which relief is now being given to public education in some communities

The success achieved by those working in Washington for emergency relief for education will depend principally upon the strength of the demand which Congress and the administration feel from educators and laymen throughout the country.

Educational Method, March 1934.

CHILD-DEVELOPMENT AND PARENT-EDUCATION CONFERENCE

On June 19, 20, 21, 1934, the eighth Iowa Conference on Child Development and Parent Education will be held in Iowa City, Iowa. The conference is sponsored by the Iowa State Council for Child Study and Parent Education with the co-operation of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station and Extension Division of the State University of Iowa, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, and Iowa State Teachers College.

The Conference program will present some of the issues of the new educational deal. It is open to all persons interested in studying children.

* * *

The fifth meeting of the Institute for Education by Radio will be held at Ohio State University, April 30 to May 2.

DELAYED RECOGNITION

We regret to say that in our March issue, speaking of the Regional Accrediting Associations, we neglected to mention that the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was the original and leading force in the work of studying high-school standards. This notice, therefore, gives delayed recognition to its outstanding work.

Book Reviews

The New Day Junior Mathematics, by FLETCHER DURELL, J. A. FOBERG, RALPH S. NEWCOMB, with the coöperation of VEVIA BLAIR. Chicago: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1932; Book One, xii+338+xxii pages; Book Two, xii+338+xxviii pages.

The authors claim to have produced these books after nine years of experimentation with the recommendations of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements. Probably better mathematical training will be secured when the terms arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry are excluded from junior-high mathematics texts. In the organization of materials of instruction the authors have followed this principle and then they weaken the full effect of it by use of such expressions as "review of algebra," "diagnostic test in algebra," "a completion test in geometry."

The aim of the series seems to be the development of ability to think in terms of mathematical relationships. To this end provision is made for the able pupils to secure training in investigation in generalization and in drawing mathematical inferences.

In the reviewer's opinion the practise exercises in decimals contradict the teaching of rounding off numbers and of approximate measurement. It also seems that the introduction of the balance idea of the equation early in Book Two is unwarranted because pupils easily solve the type of equation presented here by reading it for meaning and then applying the computing skills already acquired. In other words, pages 40 to 46, Book II, handicap rather than help the pupil in understanding the solution of the types of equations presented at this point.

However, the strengths of these texts so far outweigh the weaknesses that the most critical student of junior-high mathematics content must be grateful to the authors and publishers for these books. They supply the stimulus for the production of still better materials of instruction in junior-high mathematics.

It is the opinion of the reviewer that pupils using these texts will enjoy learning mathematics if teachers do not interpose unnecessary explanation.

J. A. D.

The New Day Junior Mathematics, Book Three, by VEVIA BLAIR. Chicago: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1933, xii+430 pages.

This book contains a well-organized body of instruction material for capable ninth-grade pupils. The central theme throughout the text is the function concept. The algebraic graph, the algebraic equation, directed numbers, fundamental processes, and the solution of problems are the tools by which the pupil is expected to acquire an understanding of the central theme. The treatment of problem solving through the equation is, in the opinion of the reviewer, the most satisfactory that has yet appeared in junior-high mathematics texts. Throughout the book the organization and presentation of the instruction material reveal both the trained mathematician and the master teacher—a rare combination in authors of texts in elementary mathematics.

J. A. D.

The Constitution, by FRANK A. MAGRUDER and GUY S. CLAIRE. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1933, xii+395 pages, \$2.50.

In ordinary times, the mass of our people accept our American institutions almost as part of the natural order, like the weather and the air they breathe. Taking the long view back over our history, a certain complacency on the part of the people is understandable, for the outstanding phenomenon to be observed is not how poorly our institutions have worked, but how well. We are one of the oldest governments in the world in the sense that we have existed under one framework of government without fundamental change longer than has any other great nation. The fathers seem to have built rather well.

Well as our institutions have worked, however, they are after all of human origin and subject to the imperfections of things human. They are necessarily designed to function within more or less specific social and economic conditions, and neither death nor taxes are more certain than that these conditions cannot be held static. Since we have learned as yet to exercise but meager control over conditions, we are forced to do the next best thing and adapt, as well as we can, our institutions to them. Danger arises when the lag becomes too great.

The thoughtful citizen of today, surrounded by a world in ferment, will almost inevitably find his attention directed or redirected towards our fundamental law. He will be fortunate if in his study of it he has such a guide as the treatise by Magruder and Claire. The authors state that their purpose is "to explain the Constitution and the fundamental governmental structure so simply and

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clearly that it can be understood by any intelligent individual." In the writer's opinion, they have succeeded admirably. Their treatment is clear and lucid, and it has a quality of interest not often found in works of the sort.

In the field of secondary education, it should prove of great value, as a handbook, to teachers of government, and as a reference work it should be found in all secondary-school libraries.

H. L. HARRINGTON

Work Test Book, to accompany *The Nations at Work*, by BRUCE OVERTON. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, ii+141 pages, \$.40.

A loose-leaf workbook to be used in connection with *The Nations at Work*, recently reviewed in these columns. This workbook should be very helpful to teachers and pupils for purposes of drill and testing.

A. D. W.

Safety in Physical Education in Secondary Schools, by FRANK S. LLOYD. New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1933, 192 pages, \$1.25.

This book is an analysis of accident conditions in physical education in high schools and preparatory schools in the United States with recommendations for improvement. It is the result of a study made possible under the eighth of a series of graduate fellowships in safety education maintained at various universities by the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters.

Dr. Lloyd's task was to determine the prevalence and nature of accidents in physical-education activities, to discover their causes, and to work out a program of prevention. In order to accomplish this, he reviewed detailed reports of accidents from 510 secondary schools representing a student population of more than 600,000, material that had never before been gathered.

Athletics are inherently dangerous and to eliminate inherent hazards would remove the educational benefits of the game, but an institution which does not protect its students from unnecessary hazards is failing in its responsibility. The 17,329 estimated accidents occurring in physical-education activities in secondary schools for the year 1931-1932, with the resulting 70,761 days lost, indicate both the need and the responsibility of schools for more adequate protection. Nearly twenty per cent of the accidents and ten per cent of the days lost were attributable to equipment hazards.

The study abounds in tabulations and is liberally

illustrated by graphs and diagrams. Persons responsible for the safety of children in athletics will find it of great value. A. D. W.

The New Leisure Challenges the Schools, by EUGENE T. LIES. New York: National Recreation Association, 1933, 326 pages.

This study is based on the findings obtained from questionnaires sent to 1,500 school systems with the total enrollment of approximately 3,500,000 pupils. It is a valuable report and discussion of what is being done by evening schools, through afterschool hours and vacations, for youths and adults. It is primarily interested in the place of the school in the challenge of the new leisure.

This volume should be invaluable to those who are interested in the recreational aspects of education and it should be of interest to all who realize the importance of choosing wisely what is to be done with leisure time in a contemporary civilization in which the choice of things to do is wider than it has been in any previous civilization.

DOROTHY I. MULGRAVE

Mental Hygiene in the Community, by CLARA BASSETT. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 394 pages, \$3.50.

A thoroughgoing and scholarly discussion of mental hygiene in relation to medicine, social-service agencies, delinquency and law, parental education, the church, industry, recreation, and other chief factors in our social order. Throughout the book emphasis is placed on the trend away from formal acceptance of traditional interpretations of human behavior and towards the study of the individual and the selection of treatment that is adapted to his peculiar needs.

A. D. W.

Our Economic World, by WILLARD E. ATKINS and ARTHUR WUBNIG. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1934, ix + 411 pages, \$1.68.

Here is a textbook in economics, the authors of which have faced the task of rebuilding a text in terms of the changes which have occurred in the economic order. Behind the plan of the book lies the determination to bring economics into grips with reality and to minimize the memory aspects of study in this subject.

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The book is well organized and clearly written; the chapter summaries are concise and to the point. It should be welcomed by progressive teachers of economics.

A. D. W.

The Administration of American Education, by FRANK PIERREPONT GRAVES. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, xviii+631 pages, \$2.00.

Dr. Graves, Commissioner of Education of the State of New York, presents a fresh discussion of American public elementary and secondary education. Following a brief introduction, the author deals with the pupils and the classroom (seven chapters), the teachers and personnel problems (ten chapters), administrative and supervising officers (six chapters), and divisions of administrative organization (four chapters). In a chapter entitled "The Function of American Education," he concludes the volume with a philosophical consideration of the purposes and place of public education in America.

The book reflects the experience and thinking of an educational statesman. The best chapters deal with the units of administration, the functions of the board of education, the superintendent of

schools, and the business manager, and, especially, the Nation and education. Dr. Graves takes positive stand in favor of Federal participation in education and of definite State control of public education, and for an enlarged part in school administration for the intermediate unit—generally the county organization.

Educational finance and building problems are not dealt with directly in this volume, nor are public relations, records and reports, schedule-making, and many other managerial responsibilities of the school principal. The readers addressed apparently are those whose administrative interests are more general.

The text is recommended for introductory classes in administration and as general reading for every one who is interested in school organization and administration.

P. W. L. C.

The Book of Modern Letters, compiled by SARAH AUGUSTA TANITOR AND KATE M. MONRO. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933, xviii+349 pages, \$.60.

For many years this reviewer has had no occasion to consult a complete letter writer. Here, however, is one that has literary as well as epistolary

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Part II, THE PRACTICES, will contain articles by Fred Alexander, who writes on the social studies in Virginia's integrated high school program; Dr. L. Thomas Hopkins who writes on the Wilmington, Delaware program; Mary H. Herrick, Lester Dix, Howard Wilson, Mabel Skinner and Ruth W. Gavian.

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A. D. W.

Exploring Latin, by a Committee of Latin Teachers of Baltimore, Maryland. New York: American Book Company, 1933, xviii+192 pages.

There can be no doubt that there is a growing need for a reorganization of the junior-high-school language program. The committee of teachers, who prepared the little volume *Exploring Latin* as a result of their experimental work in teaching language to beginners, have arranged an attractive and valuable text to aid children to discover their interest and ability in language study. The book is organized into three units: How the English Language Grew; How the Forms and Positions of Words Aid in Discovering Their Use; How

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VIRGINIA B. SMITH

Workbook in Business English, by G. B. HOTCHKISS AND CELIA ANNE DREW. New York: American Book Company, 1933, 192 pages, \$.52.

This book gives the student in business English an opportunity to apply his knowledge to written exercises in English, capitalization, spelling, and syllabication, and to business correspondence, articles, and advertisements. Exercises of various types, based on materials from modern business practice, diagnostic tests, charts for recording scores, blank pages for extra assignments—all tend

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LEMPI TALVENSAARI

The Effectiveness of Large Classes at the College Level: An Experimental Study Involving the Size Variable and the Size Procedure Variable, by ALBERT E. BROWN. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1932, 66 pages, \$.75.

"As long as higher education was believed to be a special privilege of the intellectually elect, college education was relatively simple and inexpensive," says Hudelson. Small classes seemed to be normal. With the rapid expansion of college education, however, the expense of conducting small classes has become in many cases prohibitive.

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sizes. The results showed no superiority for one sized section over the other.

He next varied the procedures with classes of the same size (60 students) and distributions, using both a control group with which conventional procedures were used and a departmental control of smaller sections as a check on the progress of the control group. The experimental procedure was shown to be superior, but there was no evidence to show that larger classes suffered as compared with small sections even where methods developed for small classes were used with them.

Finally he used an elaborately modified method adapted for large classes, and found that in every case the large experimental excelled the control group, and that the experimental procedure was peculiarly adapted to large groups. The evidence concerning the effect of the procedures upon the various levels of ability is inconclusive. The author is careful to point out that such positive conclusions as he draws apply to other subjects than that taught in this experiment (psychology) only as they are manifestly adaptable to a similar procedure.

P. W. L. C.

Educating for Citizenship, by GEORGE A. COE. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932, xvi + 205 pages, \$2.00.

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of the schools and "the power behind the throne," of the political functions of nonstate schools, and of the present trends in the social studies.

His final chapter, "The Schoolteacher Quizzes the Sovereign," should be read and pondered by every socially alert American, and especially teachers and school-board members. For sovereignty is empirical and experimental. Today we may obey political administrators as representatives of sovereignty; but tomorrow the school will be recognized as an organ of world society. "The stern call to patriotism today is a call repentantly to identify ourselves as citizens, with the existing economic injustice and futility, and then to form a coöperative industrial commonwealth that shall express, as the political finality, the value of persons."

P. W. L. C.

The Operation and Effects of a Single Salary Schedule, by ROSEWELL PAGE BOWLES.

New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, viii + 140 pages, \$1.50.

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higher salaries in the high school and upper grades than in the lower grades; and, second, the value to society of services rendered which has obviously denied the validity of any distinction in salary in favor of the teachers of higher grades. The latter basis was seldom sanctioned by practice prior to 1920. But by February 19, 1931, the National Education Association had received salary reports from 233 cities that had single-salary schedules; that is, they paid the same salaries to teachers of equal training and experience regardless of whether they taught in elementary or in secondary schools.

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